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BOSTON.

HOW TO TELL
THE PARTS OF SPEECH,

AN

Introduction to English Grammar.

BY THE

REV. EDWIN A. ABBOTT, D.D.,

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AUTHOR OF "HOW TO WRITE CLEARLY," "HOW TO PARSE," AND, JOINTLY
WITH PROFESSOR SEELEY, OF CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY, ENGLAND,
OF "ENGLISH LESSONS FOR ENGLISH PEOPLE."

AMERICAN EDITION,

Revised and Enlarged,

By JOHN G. R. McELROY, A.M.,

PROFESSOR OF RHETORIC AND THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

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NOTE TO THE AMERICAN EDITION.

DR. ABBOTT'S grammars, *How to Tell the Parts of Speech* and *How to Parse*, are distinguished, not alone by the reform the points of which he records on page viii. of his Preface to the present work, but also by the unloading from the subject of all its rubbish, — useless tables of foreign plurals, long paradigms of forms already well known or to be learned only by experience, etc., etc. (Preface, p. x).

Both these praiseworthy characteristics are carefully preserved in the reprint ; the few changes made (after consultation with Dr. Abbott, and by his permission) in no way affecting essentials. A few technical terms, omitted by the author but fully described by him, are added ; paragraph-numbers, consecutive throughout the book, are given, to facilitate references and the setting of lessons ; and numerous exercises, suggested by Dr. Abbott in Note 3, are inserted. These exercises, also numbered consecutively, will, it is hoped, not only render the meaning of the text more clear, but will also serve as lessons in Composition. Grammar and Composition are (in elementary instruction, certainly) correlatives ; and they have both suffered in the too common obscuring of their mutual relations.

Matter added in this edition is denoted by the sign *.

A few of Dr. Abbott's Notes are taken up into the text, but as far as possible in Dr. Abbott's own words. New notes are then substituted ; as, in other places, additional notes are inserted.

J. G. R. MCE.

PREFACE.

THE conviction that any child can be taught "how to tell the Parts of Speech" in any sentence that he can understand, has induced me to publish this little book. I believe that a very young child may be taught, almost without knowing that he is being taught, first to classify English words according to their *function* in the sentence, and then to infer the nature of each word from its function ; or, as a child would put it, to tell you first what the word *does*, and then what Part of Speech the word *is*.

The principal mistake in teaching English grammar hitherto seems to have been the attempt to assimilate it to Latin grammar. All the grammatical nomenclature of the inflected Latin language having been imported, as a matter of course, into the teaching of the uninflected English, teachers next set to work at finding English things for the Latin names. For example, they first imported into English the Latin word "Gender," which represents a Latin reality, and then, inventing an English unreality to correspond to the Latin importation, they insisted on making their pupils repeat, as an important point in English grammar, that "hen" is the feminine of "cock," and "she-goat" of "he-goat." In the same way, a whole system of syntactical concords was invented, not because the concords existed, but because their names existed, having been obtruded into English grammar. This has given a sense of unreality to elementary English teaching, from which even now we have not quite extricated ourselves.

The following extract from a paper read before "the Birmingham Association of Teachers of all Grades" will serve as an exposition of the remedy suggested and aimed at in the following pages : —

"The reform that I would suggest is based, 1st, upon *honesty*, a determination to approach the subject with a single eye, to discard all one's hampering Latin notions, and not to say one sees in English what one really does not see; 2d, upon *experiment*, guiding a boy from his own language (not from poetical examples, nor from choice classical prose), to see the necessity of certain words; 3d, upon *reasoning*, teaching him to reason out what part of speech each word is for himself.

"Of these three principles, *honesty* needs no comment, nor does *experiment* need much (though some teachers seem to be hardly aware how valuable a lesson English grammar may be made in the way of enlarging a child's stock of words and notions by 'experiment'): but how is a boy to reason out what part of speech a word is? Thus: he is to be taught for some time to tell you what a word *does*, before he is asked or even permitted to tell you what the word *is*. The fundamental principle of English grammar may be stated with little exaggeration as being this, that *any word may be used as any part of speech*. It is therefore the force and meaning of the word, as gathered from the meaning of the sentence, that must determine what part of speech the word is; for example, whether 'considering' is a Participle, an ordinary Noun, or a Verbal Noun, a part of some Tense in a Verb, or a Preposition.* We must, therefore, not allow our pupil to tell

* For example, in the words "*Considering* your youth, it is possible your fault may be pardoned." If this sentence is English, which can scarcely be denied, it is the merest pedantry to deny that "*considering*" is a Preposition here. See Morris's "Historical Outlines of English Accidence," p. 206.

us what part of speech the word is till he has told us its function, or, in his own words, what the word does.

"Perhaps some one may say 'Of course, no good teacher would let his pupils say what part of speech a word is without being able to explain why.' But I submit that this is not quite the same thing. Giving reasons *after* the answer is not the same mental process as giving *first* the facts, and then deducing the answer from the facts. A boy that has given a bad answer will generally find little difficulty in supporting it with a bad reason. But if you fix his attention *first* on what the word does, *before he has committed himself to an error*, and while his mind is open to receive the truth, he is more likely to reason in an unbiased and honest way; and, besides, he will attach importance to that which is really important, — I mean the function, and not the name of the word.

"I should like to be able to go into any elementary school, and to be sure of hearing children *reasoning* thus: '*Quickly* tells you *how* he came; therefore it is an Adverb.' '*Black* tells you what sort of a horse it was; therefore it is an Adjective.' '*Horse* is the name of an animal; therefore it is a Noun.' '*That* joins two sentences together: therefore it is a Conjunction.' '*Twice* tells you how often he fell; therefore it is an Adverb.' That word 'therefore' is a word that might with advantage be indelibly engraved on the heart of every child. In the use of that word consists the system that I wish to recommend. Facts first, reasoning from the facts afterwards. I stand here as against the claims of 'because,' to advocate the claims of 'therefore.'

"Rather more time and pains than are given at present will perhaps be required to teach a child thus to experimentalize, to reason, and to classify: but the time will probably be well bestowed; and, besides, we may perhaps gain time by dispensing with a good deal now generally

taught. I should be disposed to give up as either superfluous or hopeless the attempt to teach an English child how to speak English out of an English Grammar. If he is ever to speak English correctly, he will learn it by speaking it; if he is ever to use the words *loci* and *cherubim*, *maxima* and *minima*, he will, before he uses them, have learned the correct forms, by hearing others use them. Nor do I see, I confess, the use of making an English boy go through the whole of the Verb 'I love,' including such out-of-the-way Tenses as 'I may have been loving,' 'I shall have been loved,' etc. A Verb thus learned seems to me to convey little benefit, and gives a sense of unreality to the lesson — for the boy uses his Verbs in all probability quite correctly already — and it is a very dull and wearisome task. I would discard the task, and all such tasks, and make the business of the teacher not to teach the boy *how to speak* English, but *how to understand* English, and how to see the reasons for the anomalies in it. Common faults, if they are common in a certain neighborhood, such as 'says I,' 'will' for 'shall,' and the like, may be eradicated without compelling a boy to go through the whole of an English Verb; and the symmetry of the Tenses may be perceived better, not worse, by discarding the drudgery." *

To come to details — it is hoped that the Exercises may be less wearisome than such exercises mostly are. They have been written with the special purpose of exemplifying the rules of parsing, while at the same time they have been thrown into the form of little tales or fables. They are intended chiefly as oral exercises, but may be afterwards written.

It seems to me to have been a serious mistake in teaching English Grammar to give young children, by way of examples and exercises, chips of sentences, always dry,

* The Tenses are not dealt with in this book.

dull, and uninteresting, and often ambiguous, and to call them "Simple Exercises." Easy and connected narrative (not poetical extracts, which are full of inversions and irregularities) should be given to a child as soon as he begins to parse. For no child *ought to be able to parse a sentence that he does not perfectly understand.*

The Specimen Exercises worked out for the child are purposely made more difficult than the Exercises given to the child to work out for himself. The intention has been gradually to prepare the learner to grapple with difficulties in a logical way, and to accustom him to believe that all difficulties can be logically overcome. For undoubtedly there are difficulties in English grammar; there are probably more in English than in Latin and Greek. But the beauty of the difficulties in English grammar is that they can be reasoned about by English children, and that the materials for such reasoning lie in the child's own mouth: his own speech supplies him with the best foundation for argument. For they are to be solved by appeal, not to inflections, but to the function of each word, which an English boy is quite able to comprehend, provided that the subject-matter is suitably simple.

At the risk of appearing to practise mechanical, while advocating intelligent teaching, I have ventured to insert "tests," side by side with definitions. Experience has convinced me that they are useful as occasional crutches, and can easily be thrown aside when no longer needed.

If the book should seem somewhat diffuse, attempting to fill up what should be supplied rather by a teacher than a book, my apology must be that it is intended for parents as well as for professional teachers, and that most books on this subject hitherto have rather erred on the side of conciseness than diffuseness.

Perhaps the attempt to be colloquial and to avoid hard words may seem to some experienced teachers carried to

excess. But I cannot help thinking that one cause of the present unsatisfactory condition of the teaching of English grammar is to be found in the exuberant vocabulary of technical terms often obtruded into elementary books. Far better, as it seems to me, to lead the pupil first to the *things*, teaching him to recognize different classes of Verbs, Conjunctions, Adjectives, and to reserve for a later treatise the technical *names* of such distinctions. To take an instance, I have been asked why the usual Definition of a Preposition instead of being placed in the text, has been relegated to the notes, for the use of any teachers that may like to use it? My answer is that, in an elementary book, to define a word by saying that it "shows the *relation* of a Noun or Pronoun to some other word in the sentence" seems to me of little use even for clever children, and of great harm for dull ones. I confess further, for my part, I should have thought that in the sentence "Thomas *protects* John," Thomas stands *in the relation* of a protector to John, so that "protects" *shows the relation* between "Thomas" and "John," and is therefore, according to this definition, a Preposition. Possibly, therefore, the definition ought to be rejected because it is false, certainly because it is unintelligible to those for whom it is intended.

The notes at the end of the book are intended rather for the teacher than the learner, to meet difficulties and answer questions that may arise in the course of teaching.

Some explanation may be required of the title, "How to tell the Parts of Speech." The reason for selecting this title, and for not calling the book an "English Grammar" is, that a great many boys learn "English grammar" for several years without being able to tell an Adjective from an Adverb, or a Conjunction from a Preposition. Out of about three hundred boys, averaging more than twelve years of age, and examined in one year as candidates for admission into the City of London School, less than half

could tell what part of speech "quickly" was. It therefore suggested itself as possible that a less ambitious book than an "English Grammar," a book that dared to dispense with a full list of the names of male and female animals, and that ventured to omit the inculcation of such minutiae as the plurals of *cherub* and *locus*, — in a word, a book that assumed that English boys will learn English by speaking and reading it, if they are to learn it at all — might have a modest but useful work to do in simply teaching children, what at present few children know, namely, "how to tell the Parts of Speech."

A little pupil, trained according to this system, once answered the question "How are you getting on with your grammar?" by saying that "he was not learning grammar, but he could tell an Adverb from a Conjunction." It is the Author's hope that many children may, in the same way, be taught by this little book to tell an Adverb from a Conjunction, even though they may be ignorant that they are "learning grammar."

I am under obligations for much valuable help to many able and experienced teachers, some of whom I have before had occasion to thank in other Prefaces, and all of whom I would gladly mention here if space permitted. But more than a general acknowledgment is due from me to Mr. G. S. Brockington, one of the Assistant Masters of King Edward's School, Birmingham, and to Mr. T. W. Chambers, B.A., Scholar of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, one of my own colleagues at the City of London School, whose careful and searching criticisms have had a material effect in modifying the book as it passed through the press.

In reviewing the Second Edition I have added an abridgment of the Appendix on Spelling, together with the Etymo-

logical Glossary of Grammatical Terms, both of which are contained in the Second Part, entitled "How to Parse." These additions are made for the convenience of those who may use this book as an introduction to English Grammar, without proceeding to "How to Parse."

If the pupil is intended to proceed to the Second Part, I should recommend him to defer the study of Chapter X. of this work, until he has mastered the first three chapters of "How to Parse."

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¹ To facilitate references from Dr. Abbott's *How to Parse* (Boston, Roberts Brothers, 1878).

² This and subsequent numbers denote the American page on which the English page ends: the latter often *begins* one page before.

³ Begins on p. 4.

⁴ Begins on p. 29, and is in part on p. 30.

⁵ Begins and ends on p. 31, but is in part on p. 30.

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⁹ Distributed over pp. 105-107.¹⁰ In part on pp. 106, 107.

HOW TO TELL THE PARTS OF SPEECH :

AN

Introduction to English Grammar.

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

1. TELL me the names of some persons ; such as *John, Mary.*

2. Tell me the names of some places ; such as *London, Middlesex, England.*

3. Tell me the names of some things that you can see, feel, hear, or smell ; such as *apples, soldiers, cat, sky, air, thunder, gas.*

* 4. Tell me the names of some *groups* of persons or things ; such as *class, family, crowd, flock, herd.*

EXERCISE I.

* Write or repeat four names of (1) boys ; (2) girls ; (3) places ; (4) rivers ; (5) public buildings ; (6) dogs ; (7) horses ; (8) other animals ; etc.

Write or repeat four names of (1) things good to eat ; (2) parts of a house ; (3) parts of the body ;

(4) parts of a tree ; (5) parts of a book ; (6) parts of a ship ; (7) things used for writing ; (8) tools used by a gardener ; (9) by a carpenter, etc.

* Write or repeat as many names as you can of *groups* of (1) boys or girls ; (2) soldiers ; (3) other persons ; (4) animals ; (5) trees ; (6) houses ; (7) books ; etc.

5. Now look at this piece of chalk. What sort of a thing is it? It is white, solid, rough or smooth, useful, small or large. All these words tell us the *qualities* of the chalk (*quality* means 'of what sort'): well, I want *names* of these qualities ; give me them : *whiteness*, *solidness* or *solidity*, *roughness* or *smoothness*, *usefulness* or *utility*, *smallness*, *largeness*.

You cannot see *usefulness*, but *usefulness* is the name of a *quality* of the chalk.

6. Tell me some more names of the qualities of *things*, such as *weight*, *beauty*.

7. Tell me some names of the qualities of *persons* : (a) good qualities or virtues, such as *gentleness*, *honesty*, *justice*, *temperance* ; (b) bad qualities or vices, such as *harshness*, *cruelty*, *dishonesty*, *injustice*, *intemperance*, *untruthfulness*.

8. Tell me some names of (a) the *feelings* of your body, such as *hunger*, (b) the feelings of your mind, such as *joy*, *hope*, *pity*.

9. Tell me some names of actions ; such as *jumping*, *running*, *reading*, *counting*, *singing*.

EXERCISE II.

Write or repeat six names of (1) actions ; (2) feelings of your mind ; (3) good qualities of persons ;

(4) bad qualities of persons; (5) qualities of coal; (6) air; (7) India-rubber; (8) snow; (9) paper; (10) hair; (11) steel; (12) water.

10. How shall we call all these *names*? If we call them "names," people will think we mean none but names of persons; but we mean names of places, of things, of faults, actions, etc., as well. So we will call them **Nouns**, which is another word for Names.⁽¹⁾

EXERCISE III.

Point out the *Nouns* in —

Some thoughtless boys were playing with stones near a pond. During their play they noticed a family of frogs and began to pelt them, not out of cruelty, for they were not cruel, but out of thoughtlessness. Very soon they hit one of the frogs, and all the family at once dived down in a fright beneath the surface of the water. "This is fine fun," said the boys, "we will wait till they come up again, and then we will give them a good pelting." Just then the mother of the frogs popped up her head, croaking so pitifully that the boys held their hands and did not pelt her. "Young gentlemen," said she, "if you are really gentle you will not continue your sport. How would you like it if a giant killed your mother or sister out of sport? But that is what you have done to me; you have killed my youngest daughter, and maimed my two sons for life. What is sport to you is death to us."

11. Sometimes you may be puzzled about Nouns. You may not see, for example, that *pelting* in the Exercise above is the *name* of an action, and so you may not know that it is a Noun. So here is a good way to find whether a word is a Noun or not, —

12. If a word (sometimes with ‘a’ or ‘the’ before ‘it’) can come after “I like,” or “dislike,” to answer the question, “What do you like?” it is a Noun. (?)

13. Thus you can say, “I like *apples, Thomas, nothing, a walk, the country, jumping;*” but you cannot say, “I like *quickly;*” so *quickly* is not a Noun. Of course, you must be careful to see how a word is used in the Exercise, before you say it is a Noun. For example, “playing” might sometimes be a Noun, as in “I like playing,” but it is clearly not a Noun *in the first line of the Exercise above*, because it is not *there* used as a Name.

How to make Nouns.

14. Sometimes you can make Nouns out of other words that are not Nouns. For example, *slow* is not a Noun; but you can make a Noun out of it, — *slowness*. *High* is not a Noun; but you can make a Noun out of it, — *height*.

EXERCISE IV.

Make *Nouns* out of the following words: *swift, broad, glad, long, deep, careless, narrow, wide, ready, obstinate, persevere, just, humble, pious, brave, repent.*

* Kinds of Nouns.

* 15. Look carefully at the first two Nouns in the following sentence : —

“ Charles is the oldest son of the family.”

Charles and *son*, you see, are simply different names for the same person ; but they are also different *kinds* of names.

(1) *Charles* is the name of a *particular* person, that is, of an *individual*. The name may be said to belong to Charles, to be peculiarly *his own*. Hence, it is called a **Proper Noun**. (*Proper* means ‘one’s own,’ as in *property*, *appropriate*.)

(2) *Son* is a name *common* to Charles and all his brothers ; indeed, to all boy-children. It is the name of *every one* of a *class*. Hence, it is called a **Common Noun**.

* 16. Tell the difference between (1) *Helen*, (2) *girl*; (1) *London*, (2) *city*; (1) *Ponto*, (2) *dog*; (1) *Racer*, (2) *horse*; (1) *Hudson*, (2) *river*; (1) *State-House*, (2) *building*; (1) *Post-Office*, (2) *house*.

MODEL. — (1) *Helen* is the name of a *particular* girl: it is her *proper* (her *own*) name. Therefore it is a Proper Noun. (2) *Girl* is the name, not only of Helen, but of all other girls: it is *common* to them all. Therefore it is a Common Noun.

(1) A Proper Noun is a name peculiar or proper to an individual.

(2) A Common Noun is a name common to a class.

* 17. But the sentence has a third Noun, *family*. It means Charles and his brothers (and, perhaps, some other persons) *taken together*, spoken of as a *group*. Hence, it is called a **Collective Noun**. (*Collective* means ‘taken together.’)

* 18. Tell the difference between the Nouns in each of the following phrases:—

(1) *A bevy of girls*; (2) *a pack of wolves*; (3) *an army of ants*; (4) *a herd of buffaloes*; (5) *a flock of sheep*; (6) *a brood of chickens*; (7) *a clump of bushes*; (8) *a bunch of grapes*; (9) *a row of houses*.

(3) A **Collective Noun** is the name of a number of objects taken together, the name of a group.

N.B. — An *object* is anything of which we can think, something *thrown in the way* of our minds.

* 19. Once more, “Charles” is said to be “the oldest son”; and *oldest* tells us of a *quality* of Charles’s. [§ 5] What is its name? *age*? But when we give this quality a name, we think of it as *abstracted* (that is, *taken away*) from Charles. Hence, it is called an **Abstract Noun**. So, names of feelings [§ 8], of actions [§ 9], and of some other things, help us to think of the feelings, etc., as *taken away* from the persons who feel, act, etc.; and they, too, are hence called **Abstract Nouns**.

(4) An **Abstract Noun** is the name of a quality, feeling, action, etc., thought of as ab-

stracted, or taken away, from the object to which it belongs.

* 20. Tell the difference between the Nouns in each of the following sentences : —

- (1) The weight of the lead broke the scales.
- (2) George's anger required punishment.
- (3) The laughing of the knot of boys was heard in the school-room.
- (4) The ill-health of the master gave the school a holiday.

* EXERCISE V.

Tell the *kind* of each Noun in Exercise III. and in —

At the time of Braddock's defeat, an Indian chief named Pontiac had seen the red-coats running away before his own men. Being a man of great courage and skill, he laid a plan to unite all the tribes of his race, and to drive the English out of America. First he tried to take Detroit, which was then only a fort; but he failed, and his conspiracy broke down. Soon after, he was murdered by another Indian in a drunken frolic.

* EXERCISE VI.

Write this story again in your own words, being careful to use some Nouns of each kind.

21. A Noun is a name of any kind. (*)

N.B. — A Noun is not a *thing*, but the *name of a thing*. A cow is not a Noun; but the *word* "cow" is a Noun.

CHAPTER II.

PRONOUNS.

22. It would take up a great deal of time and would be very confusing if, whenever we wished to speak of ourselves or other people or things, we were obliged to repeat the Noun each time. For example, if your name were John, and you were speaking to a second person named James, *about* a third person named Thomas, it would be inconvenient to say, "When John saw Thomas, Thomas told John that James said James was coming to see John." What will you say instead of this? Will you not say, "When *I* saw Thomas, *he* told *me* that *you* said *you* were coming to see *me*"?

23. Again, take up a book. Tell me something about the book. You will not go on repeating "*the book* is heavy, *the book* belongs to me." What word will you use for 'the book'? Will it not be 'it'? Or, if you are speaking about more books than one, you will not go on repeating *the books*. What word will you use instead? Will it not be 'they' or 'them'?

24. You see, then, that these words *I*, *you*, *he*, etc., are used *instead of* or *for nouns*, and we therefore call them *Pronouns* (*Pro* means *for* or *instead of*).

25. Words used for Nouns are called **Pronouns.**

26. The Pronouns may be arranged as follows : —

(1) Pronouns denoting the **Person speaking**: *I, me, we, us, myself, ourselves.*

(2) Pronouns denoting the **Person spoken to**: *you, yourself, yourselves*; in Old English, *thou, thee, thyself, ye*, — forms still used in poetry and (once in a while) elsewhere.

(3) Pronouns denoting (a) the **Person spoken of**: *he, him, himself, she, her, herself, they, them, themselves.* (b) The **thing spoken of**: *it, itself, they, them, themselves.*

* 27. These words are called *Personal* Pronouns, because 'person' once meant "an actor's part in a play," and these pronouns denote "the *part played* in conversation." They are (as arranged above) of the *First*, the *Second* or the *Third Person*.

* 28. Personal Pronouns that end in *-self* or *-selves* are called *Reflexive* Pronouns, (*Reflexive* means 'bent back'), because they refer to a person *already named by another Pronoun*; as in, "*I* will do it *myself*," "*he* struck *himself*," "speak (*you*) for *yourself*." (4)

EXERCISE VII.

Put Pronouns for the italicized Nouns in the following : —

Once an ass dressed *an ass* in the skin of a lion. On seeing *the ass* thus disguised, all the beasts of the forest fled away in fear, thinking *the ass* to be a lion, and fearing that *the ass* would devour *the beasts*. The fox alone did not run away, but hid *the fox* behind a tree, to note what went on. When

the ass thought *the ass* was alone, *the ass* could not help braying with delight to see the beasts all so frightened at *the ass*. On this the sly fox stepped from behind the tree and said to *the ass*, "Now *the fox* has (have) found *the ass* out. If *the ass* had only kept quiet, every one would have taken *the ass* for a lion."

EXERCISE VIII.

Tell me what Nouns the italicized Pronouns are put for in the following Exercise : —

Three bulls were fighting together in a field. When the lion saw *them*, *he* said, "Now I shall be able to kill *them*. Before, *they* were too strong for *me*, three against one; but now *I* will wait till the black bull has driven away his companions, and then, when *he* is alone, I shall easily conquer *him* first, and then the other two bulls." Then turning to the cub behind *him*, *he* said, "Come on, little one, *you* shall soon have a good dinner."

Tell me what *you* and *me* are put for in the following : "One goat said to another, ' *You* must let *me* pass.' " What is *you* put for? Is it not 'the goat spoken to'? And what is *me* put for? Is it not 'the goat speaking'? That will show you what Pronouns you must write for the 'speaking frog,' and 'the frog spoken to,' in the following Exercise.

EXERCISE IX.

Put Pronouns for the italicized Nouns in the following : —

Once upon a time a conceited frog saw a fine large cow in a green meadow. So *the frog* said to his companion, "Why should not *the frogs* (we) make *the frogs* as large as that beautiful animal? Let *the speaking frog* try to puff *the speaking frog* out by swelling *the speaking frog* with breath. Then *the speaking frog* will (shall) be as large as the cow. Look now! what does (do) *the frog spoken to* think? Is the cow much larger than *the speaking frog* is (am)?" "Yes, much larger," replied the other frog. "Ah! but look now." "The cow is much larger still," replied the other. "*The speaking frog* will try once more," said the conceited creature; and *the frog* gave one last puff, which made *the frog* burst.

EXERCISE X.

Tell me what Nouns the Pronouns are put for in the following Exercise: —

When the fox invited the stork to dinner, he set before *her* a shallow dish of soup. The fox ate of *it* greedily, for the dish suited his short nose. But the poor bird, dipping in the end of her long beak, could scarcely take up any of *it*. "*You* do not take your soup," said the fox. "*I* fear *you* do not like *it*." Then he bade the servant bring some puddings. But when the puddings were brought, *they* also were all in shallow dishes, so that the poor stork could not enjoy *them*. So *she* went home hungry and angry, and the fox enjoyed his joke; but the stork punished *him* for *it* afterwards, as *I* shall show *you* another time.

*** EXERCISE XI.**

Fill the empty places in the following story with Pronouns : —

Lina could not help smiling as — entered. Baby Tom, perched on a chair at the table, was holding her color-box on his hand, as — had seen — hold it, while — painted busily at what — did not at first see. Going to lift — down, Lina saw that — had been illuminating a sketch upon which — had especially prided —, and which — had meant to elaborate into a picture. — could not scold the baby, but — turned angrily to Dick. “— think — might have stopped —, Dick,” — said : “— knew how much — valued that sketch.”

N.B. — For other Pronouns see Chapter IX.

CHAPTER III.

ADJECTIVES.

29. SUPPOSE you have lost your pen-holder, and you come to me to ask whether I have found it.

I hold up six pen-holders, and I ask you to distinguish, that is to point out in words, your pen-holder from the others. How can you do this?

30. You can do it by *putting* words to 'pen-holder.' These words will answer the following questions:—

(1.) "**Which?**" You may distinguish your pen-holder by saying "I want *this* or *that* pen-holder," pointing while you speak.

(2.) "**Whose?**" You may say "I do not want *his* or *her*, or *your* pen-holder; I want *my* or *our* pen-holder." (5)

(3.) "**Of what sort?**" or "**In what condition?**" You may say "I want the *short* or *long* pen-holder;" "I want the *clean* or *inky* pen-holder."

(4.) "**In what order?**" You may say "I want the *first*, *second*, *third*, *next*, *last*, *furthest*, *nearest* pen-holder."

31. If I do not know how many pen-holders you have lost, then, before trying to *distinguish* your pen-holders, you must tell me:—

(5.) "**How many?**" "I have lost *one* pen-holder, *two*, *three*, *several*, *many*, *some*, *no* pen-holders."

32. If it is paper that you have lost, you will have to tell me not *how many* but : —

(6.) “**How much?**” “I have lost *more, some, no* paper.”

33. Words that are put to Nouns to answer the questions — 1. “**Which?**” 2. “**Whose?**” 3. “**Of what sort?**” or “**In what condition?**” 4. “**In what order?**” 5. “**How many?**” 6. “**How much?**” are called adjectives.

34. The word “**Adjective**” means *put to*. (°)

EXERCISE XII.

Write or repeat some Adjectives to tell me *what sort of a thing* is — (1) sugar, (2) butter, (3) a lion, (4) paper, (5) coal, (6) water, (7) glass.

Write or repeat some Adjectives to tell me *in what condition* may be — (1) a knife, (2) a boy, (3) a book, (4) a garden.

Make Nouns from these Adjectives, to tell the *names* of these qualities and conditions.

EXERCISE XIII.

Suppose you have lost a dog, or something else, and you want to describe it to a policeman in Adjectives so as to *distinguish* it from other dogs or things of the same kind; write or repeat six adjectives about — (1) a dog, (2) a cat, (3) a ball, (4) a stick, (5) a cap, (6) a knife.

You will find that most of these Adjectives can have Nouns made out of them. Make Nouns where you can.

An (?), a, the.

35. Again, suppose I ask you, "What have you lost?" You will not reply "pen-holder," you will say "*a* pen-holder"; where *a* means "I don't say *which* pen-holder."

36. Then, if I ask you when you used it last, I shall not say *a* but *the*: "When did you last use *the* pen-holder?" *The* means "You know *which* pen-holder I mean."

37. *A* and *the*, being *put to* Nouns to answer the question *which?* are called Adjectives.

* 38. Another, and more usual, name for *a* and *the* is ARTICLE; but we must never forget that these little words, though they have this *special* name (name *of their own*), are in no way different from other words that are *put to* Nouns to answer the question *which?* (⁸)

39. *The* is sometimes called *Definite*, that is, "telling clearly"; *a* is called *Indefinite*, that is, "not telling clearly." * So that we have two Articles, — the Definite Article, *the*, and the Indefinite Article, *an* or *a*.

EXERCISE XIV.

(a) Supply some Adjectives, answering the question *In what order?* such as *first*, *second*, *nearest*, *furthest*, etc., in the following: —

Some mice, being in *great* trouble owing to the persecutions of *a* cat, met together to determine what was to be done. They *all* spoke in order, according to age, and so the *oldest* mouse was the — to speak. But *the* mouse, *poor* thing, had *no*

advice to offer, and did nothing but lament. "Yesterday," said she, "*our cruel* enemy devoured *seven* relations of mine, the day before *ten*; this morning, already, *two*; *one* more is wanted to make the — of *my unfortunate* family that has perished in *her* jaws." Here the *youngest* mouse, a *hasty young* creature, who ought to have been the — to speak, rudely interrupted: "The matter is very *simple*," cried he; "we must tie a bell round the cat's neck so that we may hear her coming; and see, *this* bell in *my* hand is the very thing. Let us go at once." "By all means," said the *old* mouse; "but who shall lead the way? I will be the *second*; but who will be the —?" There were plenty of mice willing to be *third* or *fourth*, but none were willing to be —. So the bell was not hung on the cat's neck *that* day, nor the — day, nor the day after; and it is not hung even now.

(b) Write or repeat what the italicized words tell you, thus:—

Some tells you *how many* "mice."

Great tells you *how much* "trouble."

A means "I don't say which ('cat')."

All tells you *how many*.

Oldest tells you *which* "mouse."

The means "You know which ('mouse')," namely, the mouse just mentioned.

Poor tells you *what sort* of a "thing."

No tells you *how much* "advice."

Our tells you *whose* "enemy."

Answer the rest for yourself in the same way.

EXERCISE XV.

Write or repeat what the italicized Adjectives tell you in the following Exercises, also what the black Pronouns are put for : —

An old man had *several* sons, who were very *quarrelsome*. *Few* days passed without a *violent* quarrel, and often they came to blows. One day when *the young* men were bringing *some* faggots home for firewood, the father called them round him. Speaking to the *eldest*, who was *first* in order, he bade him try to break *a* faggot; he tried, but could not break it. Then turning to the *next* son, "See," said the old man, "whether *you* can break *this* faggot." But neither the *second* (°) nor the *third*, nor the *seventh* (for there were *seven* sons) could manage to break the faggot. Then *the* old man, undoing the string that fastened the faggot, broke *each* stick separately. "If *you* keep together," said he, "*no* man will be able to hurt you; but if you continue *your foolish* quarrels, your enemies will destroy you, just as I break *these* sticks."

EXERCISE XVI.

A lazy grasshopper sang and danced through the *pleasant* summer; the *industrious* ant worked with *all* his might. When the *cold* winter came with its *bitter* winds, *every* blade of grass was covered by the *deep* snow, so that the *poor* grasshopper could find *no* food. In *great* distress *she* came to the door of the *prudent* ant, whom she found eating a *good* dinner. "Give me *some* food," cried she, "or I shall

die during these *three* months of *winter* ⁽¹⁰⁾ weather.” “Why, what did you do during the *six* months of summer and autumn?” replied the *unkind* ant. “I sang,” said *the* grasshopper. “Then dance now,” said the ant. As the *greedy* fellow said these words, a *big* mole broke into *his snug* house and overturned *all his* stores of food.

EXERCISE XVII.

An *idle* young chicken, watching *some* ducklings in a *round* pond, determined to try to swim like **them**. In vain her mother warned **her** she would be drowned. “*My* feet,” said *the* chicken, “are as *fit* for swimming as the feet of *this* duckling by my side. See, **he** has jumped into *the* pond and has swum across. Why should not I swim as well as *that* duckling? I should like to taste *those* water-cresses yonder.” Saying *these* words, *the foolish* creature jumped into *the* water; but **she** soon found her *dear* mother’s warning was *true*. *Her* struggles were *useless*, and in a *short* time **she** slowly sank down to the bottom and died.

40. An Adjective is a word that can be put before a Noun, answering the question:—

1. “Which?” ⁽¹¹⁾
2. “Whose?”
3. “Of what sort?” or “In what condition?”
4. “In what order?”
5. “How many?”
6. “How much?”

41. You saw, at the beginning of this Chapter, that the first four classes of Adjectives can be used to *distinguish*. Hence you may briefly say that —

42. An Adjective is a word that can be put before a Noun, either to distinguish it, or to point out its number or amount.¹

43. *Note* — that an Adjective *can* stand before a Noun. It *does* not always, but it *can* always be made to. And in this way you can generally distinguish Adjectives from words that are not Adjectives. For example, in “my father is *good*,” you *can* put ‘good’ before ‘father,’ “my *good* father;” so ‘good’ is an Adjective. But in “my father is *well*” you cannot put ‘well’ before ‘father’ and say “my *well* father;” so ‘well’ is not an Adjective. No word is an Adjective if it *can* not be put before a Noun.

Test of an Adjective.

44. If you are in doubt whether a word is an Adjective or not, the following test may sometimes help you: —

If a word can come between ‘a’ or ‘the’ and a Noun, it is an Adjective.

45. The principal exceptions to this test are, (1) Adjectives answering to the question *whose*; such as *my* *your*, etc.; (2) some that answer to the question

¹ More briefly, “An Adjective . . . Noun,” to *qualify* its meaning.

how many, or *how much*; such as, *none*, *no*, *both*, *all*, *any*, *some*, *many*, *more*, *most*, *another*, *several*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

EXERCISE XVIII.

Write or repeat what the italicized Adjectives tell you in the following Exercise, and also what the Pronouns are put for:—

Some time ago I told *you* how *the spiteful* fox tricked the stork; now I will tell you how the stork revenged *herself* on *her cunning* enemy. *She* waited till the fox had forgotten *his* trick, and then she sent *him* an invitation to dinner. When *they* sat down, there were *six* dishes on the table, but *they* were so *narrow* at *their* tops that the fox could not get *his* head into them. He tried *each* dish, but in vain. Meantime the stork dipped in *her long* bill and dined very pleasantly; but the fox was *silent* and *sullen*. Presently he burst out “I do not like *your* dishes, Mrs. Stork.” “Nor did *I* like *your* dishes, Mr. Fox.”

EXERCISE XIX.

Pick out the Nouns in the above Exercises.

CHAPTER IV.

VERBS.


46. TAKE any Noun, for example "John." Tell me something about John *in one word*. "John *walks, sleeps, talks, runs.*" Here the word 'walks' *makes a statement* about John.

47. Try to make a statement about John, using nothing but Nouns, or Pronouns, and Adjectives; for example, "John a man," "John happy." You find you cannot do it; Nouns and Adjectives cannot make a statement. But the words above, *walks, sleeps, talks, etc.*, can make a statement, and may be called **stating words**.

EXERCISE XX.

Write or repeat some *stating words* after (1) "a dog —," (2) "a soldier —," (3) "a farmer —," (4) "a bird —," (5) "a horse —," (6) "the cat —," (7) "the sea —," (8) "the fire —," (9) "the flower —."

48. Some of these *stating words* make a complete sense. For example, in "John *walks*," the sense is complete; but in "John *strikes*," you feel that the sense is incomplete, and you ask "strikes whom, or what?" And in order that the sense may be complete, you need some Noun or Pronoun after 'strikes:' "John *strikes* Thomas."



49. The word *is* is a *stating word*. In the words "God *is*," that is, "God exists," the sense is complete; but usually the sense of *is* is incomplete, and after "John *is* —," you have to ask "*is* what?" and you complete the sense by adding a Noun or Adjective: "John *is* a boy," or "John *is* happy."

EXERCISE XXI.

(1) Write or repeat some *complete stating words* after the nine Nouns in the last Exercise.

(2) Write or repeat some *incomplete stating words* after the nine Nouns in the last Exercise.

50. Now take this sentence: (1) "Thomas struck John;" how can you put "John" first, and yet keep the meaning the same? You will say, (2) "John *was struck* by Thomas."

51. The word 'struck' in (1) is a *stating word*, and told you what John *did*; the words 'was struck' in (2) tell you what *was done to* John. We therefore take the two words together, and say that "was struck" is a *stating word*.

EXERCISE XXII.

Turn the following italicized words, which *state* what things *did*, into words that *state what was done*, keeping the sense as it is:—

The gnat *stung* the sportsman; the sportsman *missed* the pigeon; the pigeon *carried* the letter; the general *received* the message; the message *encouraged* the soldiers; the soldiers *gained* the battle; the battle *saved* the country.

EXERCISE XXIII.

Turn the following italicized words, that *state what was done*, into words that *state what things did*, keeping the sense as it is : —

(1) The malt *was eaten* by the rat ; the rat *was killed* by the cat ; the cat *was worried* by the dog ; the dog *was tossed* by the cow.

(2) The latch of a gate *was broken* by a boy ; the gate *was blown open* by the wind ; the field *was left* by a cow ; the cow *was run over* by a train ; the train *was overturned* by the cow ; a little child *was killed* by the accident ; so a little child *was killed* by that mischievous boy.

52. You see that sometimes the stating word has to be changed into *two* words. For example, above, 'struck' was changed into 'was struck ;' and we can also say "John *will strike*," "John *has struck*," Sometimes the stating words are *three* or even more in number : "he *will be struck*," "he *has been striking*," "he *has been struck*," "he *will have been met* by this time."

EXERCISE XXIV.

i. Make statements in *two stating words* about (1) the sailor, (2) the colonel, (3) the corn, (4) the river, (5) the ship, (6) the marbles.

ii. Make statements in *three stating words* after the same six Nouns.

iii. Make statements telling what the sailor, colonel, etc., *will do*, and what *will be done* to them.

57. If you are not sure whether a word is a Verb or not, ask yourself "Can I put *I*, *you*, or *he* before it?" If you can, it may be a Verb; if not, it is certainly not a Verb. Thus, you cannot say "I *quickly*," "he *this*;" and therefore 'quickly' and 'this' cannot possibly be Verbs; but you can say "he *rides*," and therefore 'rides' may be ⁽¹⁸⁾ a Verb, *provided that it makes a statement.*

How to tell parts of Verbs from Adjectives.

58. When an Adjective or Noun follows the Verb 'is,' for example, "John is *happy*," "John was a *scholar*," you must not call 'happy' or 'a scholar' a Verb. But in John *was taught*," "John *is beaten*," "John *is beating*," you may say that *was taught* is all one Verb, and so is *is beaten* and *is beating*.

59. How are you to tell when a word is an Adjective, as "happy," and when it is part of a Verb, as "beaten"? The answer is, that "beaten" and "beating" clearly do not tell you *what sort of a boy* John is, nor *in what condition* he is; therefore they are not Adjectives. But they help to state what John *does* or what *is done* to John. Therefore they are parts of Verbs.

60. But in "a *beaten* hound dreads" the whip, *beaten* tells you *what sort of* hound you are speaking of, and therefore *beaten* is an Adjective.

EXERCISE XXV.

Write or repeat whether the italicized Verbs in the following Exercise tell you — (1) what anything

does, or (2) what is done to anything, or (3) in what condition anything is. If you cannot tell this, write down simply that the Verb *makes a statement* about something: —

An elephant *passed* every day by a tailor's window. The tailor, taking notice of this elephant, *became* by degrees so fond of it that whenever it passed by, *he* always *gave* it some food. But one day he *was* so busy with his customers that he *took* no notice of the beast. The poor elephant *felt* sure that his friend *had* a bun ready for him as usual; so for some minutes he *remained* quietly standing before the open window. At last, he *poked* his trunk in. The busy tailor, in a pet because he *was* *interrupted*, *said* "So you *want* your food; do you? Here *is* your food, you insolent brute." So saying, he *gave* him a deep prick with his *biggest* needle. The elephant *moved* quietly away, but he *came* back again afterwards, as *you will read* in the next Exercise.

Passed, states what "the elephant" *did*.

Became, makes an incomplete statement about "the tailor."

Gave, states (incompletely) what "the tailor" *did*.

Was, makes an incomplete statement about "the tailor."

Took, states (incompletely) what "the tailor" *did*.

Answer the rest for yourself in the same way. You need not always say that the statement is incomplete, unless specially told to do so.

EXERCISE XXVI.

Write down or repeat what Nouns the underlined Pronouns in the above Exercise are put for.

EXERCISE XXVII.

Write down or repeat what the underlined Adjectives in the above Exercise tell you.

* Kinds and Forms of Verbs.

* 61. Verbs that make a *complete* sense [§ 48], are called **Intransitive** ('not going over'); those in which the sense is *incomplete* [§ 48], are called **Transitive** ('going over'). But a few Verbs, like 'is' [§ 49], are **Intransitive**, though their meaning is *incomplete*. They denote (1) "*being*," (2) "*becoming*." (*¹⁴)

* 62. Form (1) of § 50 is called the **Active Form**, or **Active Voice**; form (2), the **Passive Form**, or **Passive Voice**. (*¹⁵)

* 63. The forms given in § 52, like many other Verb-forms, have names; but their explanation belongs elsewhere. (*¹⁶)

EXERCISE XXVIII.

Write or repeat what the italicized Verbs tell you, as in the last Exercise:—

The elephant, on leaving the tailor, *determined* to revenge himself. Accordingly, next day, before he *came* to the window, he *collected* some dirty water in his trunk, out of a muddy pool that *was* not far off.

Meanwhile the tailor *had forgotten* how the elephant *had been treated* by him the day before ; so, when the beast *approached*, he *held* out a bun for him as usual. The *cunning* elephant *raised* his trunk, and *pretended* he was going to take the bun ; but when his trunk was close to the tailor, he *discharged* the muddy water full in the man's face. So the tailor *was taught* a good lesson.

EXERCISE XXIX.

Write or repeat what the underlined Pronouns are put for.

EXERCISE XXX.

Write or repeat what the underlined adjectives tell you.

*** EXERCISE XXXI.**

Rewrite this story of the elephant and the tailor (Exercises XXV. and XXVIII.) in your own words, being careful to use some verbs of each kind and form found in this Chapter.

CHAPTER V.

HOW TO TELL THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

64. You cannot tell me anything without using Verbs and either Nouns or Pronouns. You will also find that in speaking you are continually using Adjectives. Verbs, Adjectives, and Nouns are therefore *parts* of your speech; and they are often called by that name — “**Parts of Speech.**”

65. When you see a number of words together, it is useful to be able to say what *Part of Speech* each word is, whether it is a Noun, or an Adjective, or what. It takes too much time to say over and over again, “*Tell me what parts of speech* these words are;” so we say instead, “*Parse* these words,” where *parse* is the same as *part*.

66. Whenever you have to *parse* words you should first ask, “What does the word do? what does it tell me?” Then you will be able to find out what Part of Speech it is.

67. Now what Part of Speech is ‘rides’? Perhaps you say a Verb; but in “We had some pleasant *rides*” it is not a Verb, but a Noun.

68. Again, what Part of Speech is ‘running’? Perhaps you say a Noun; but in “*Running* water is good for trout” it is not a Noun, but an Adjective.

other words you must continue to write down what the word *does*, before you write down what the word *is*.

[SPECIMEN.]

EXERCISE

Word.	What the word does ?
The
pretty	Tells you <i>what sort of</i> a thing the glow-worm is, and can come before a Noun.
glow-worm
shines	<i>States</i> what the glow-worm <i>does</i> .
all	Tells you <i>how much</i> , and can come before a Noun.
night ;
his	Tells you <i>whose</i> , and can come before a Noun.
light
is	Makes an incomplete <i>statement</i> about "light."
dim	Tells you <i>what sort of</i> a light it is.
next	Tells you <i>in what order</i> , and can come before a Noun.
day.

78. In the above Exercise you have called 'his' an Adjective, because it tells you *whose*, and can come before a Noun : but 'man's' in Exercise XXVIII., page 28, at the end, tells you *whose*, and can come before a Noun, and yet we do not call it an Adjec-

77. For example : "The pretty glow-worm shines all night ; his light is dim next day."

XXXIV.

What the word is.
Adjective. Therefore it is an Adjective.
Noun. Therefore it is a Verb. Therefore it is an Adjective.
Noun. Therefore it is an Adjective.
Noun. Verb. * Therefore it is an Adjective. Therefore it is an Adjective.
Noun

tive. Why ? Because it is a form of the Noun 'man.' (s)


EXERCISE XXXV.

Parse the italicized words in the following Exercise : —

Two goats met on a narrow bridge. It was only a plank, and beneath it roared a rapid torrent. One goat was black, the other goat was white. The black goat said to the white (goat), 'I am in a hurry, make way for me;' but the white goat answered, 'Are you in a hurry? So am I. Make way for me.' So the black goat, which was the stronger (goat) of the two (goats), pushed his enemy over the bridge; but the horns of the white goat had been entangled in the black goat's horns, so he was dragged over also, and both (goats) were drowned.

* EXERCISE XXXVI.

A Spartan general, who had broken the laws of his country, was to be tried for his life; but his son, being intimate with the son of one of the kings of Sparta, determined to save him. So, he went to his friend and begged him to influence the king in his father's behalf. "Why," said the king's son, "you know I hardly dare look my father in the face, I am so afraid of him. Still, since you ask this favor of me, I will try my best for you." Accordingly, rising early next morning, he followed his father wherever he went, but was all day afraid to speak to him. The second day, he did the same thing, and for several days more; till at length he found courage to make his petition. His father appeared to think that justice must be done, no matter who suffered; but, before the trial came off, he persuaded the Senate that Sparta could ill afford to lose so clever a soldier, and the accused general was acquitted.



Write out in parallel columns all the Nouns, the Pronouns, the Adjectives, and the Verbs you can find in this story. Thus, —

Nouns.	Pronouns.	Adjectives.	Verbs.
General, Laws,	Him, I,	A, Spartan,	Had broken, Was.

Then re-write the story in your own way, using all these (and any other necessary) words.

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERBS.

79. — (1) **TELL** me, with the help of a Verb, something that you do: “**I walk.**”

80. This only tells me that you do something; now answer me these questions about your walking: —

1. **How?** 2. **When?** 3. **Where?**

81. Each answer must be in one word: “**I walk** *thus, twice, fast, slowly, late, early, here, there, abroad.*”

82. Now tell me, with the help of a Verb, something that was done to you. *Answer*, “**I was blamed.**”

83. But, “**How** and **when** were you blamed?” “**I was blamed** *much, justly, harshly, often, seldom, yesterday, to-day.*”

84. — (2) Tell me, with the help of an Adjective and the Verb ‘am,’ in what condition you are. *Answer*, “**I am comfortable.**” Tell me what sort of a person you are. *Answer*, “**I am good.**”

85. But, (1) “**How** good or comfortable are you?” (2) “**When** are you good or comfortable?” *Answer*, (1) “**I am** *very, quite, comfortable, rather*

comfortable, *pretty* comfortable, *more* or *less* comfortable ;" (2) "I am *often*, *sometimes*, *never*, *always* good."

86. — (3) You have said "I am *often* good."

87. But, "**How** often?" Answer by putting a word before 'often : ' "I am *not* often, *very* often, *rather* often, *less* often, *more* often good."

88. Again, you have said "I am *more* comfortable."

89. But, "**How much** more?" "I am *much* more comfortable, *no* more, *far* more comfortable."

EXERCISE XXXVII.

Write or repeat some words to tell me *how*, *when*, and *where* —

1. The ship sails. 2. The boy will come. 3. The dog barks. 4. The train started. 5. The boy eats. 6. The rain fell. 7. The soldiers fought. 8. The child answered his father.

90. In order to do this Exercise you may make three columns thus : —

	How ?	When ?	Where ?
The ship sails.	Smoothly.	Soon.	There.
The boy will come.	Slowly.	To-day.	Here.
The dog barks.	Savagely.	Early.	Everywhere.
The train started.	Slowly.	Yesterday.	There.
The sailor goes.	Gladly.	Now.	Aboard.
The rain fell.	Unceasingly.	Afterwards.	Abroad.

EXERCISE XXXVIII.

Write or repeat some words to tell me *how*, *when*, and *where*:—

1. The corn grows.
2. The boy will work.
3. The cat chases the mice.
4. The boy struck his schoolfellow.
5. The bell rang.
6. The fire burns.
7. The gunpowder exploded.

Write or repeat some words to tell me *how much*:—

1. He was pleased.
2. I was happy.
3. I was successful.
4. I was happier than before.
5. She was amused.

Write or repeat some words to tell me *how often*:—

1. He was married.
2. He was taken prisoner.
3. He was noisy.

91. All these words that you have been repeating are generally joined to *Verbs* to tell us **how**, **when**, or **where** something *is done*. They are therefore called **Adverbs**, which means ‘to-Verbs.’

92. **A word that answers to the question how? (¹⁵) when? or where? is an Adverb.**

93. Remember, the answer must be *in one word*; else it is not an Adverb. ‘Abroad’ is an Adverb, but ‘at home’ contains two words, one of which, as

you will see soon, is not called an Adverb. 'Twice' is an Adverb, but 'three times' is not. 'Aboard' is an Adverb, but 'on board' is an Adverbial Phrase. (See pages 58-61.)

94. Note that Adverbs can be used with Adjectives and Adverbs as well as with Verbs. ⁽¹⁶⁾ For example : —

He was *much* ⁽¹⁷⁾ pleased } Adverb with Verb.
by your conduct.

This is a *very* ⁽¹⁷⁾ pleasing } Adverb with Adjective.
book.

This is *too* often true. } Adverb with Adverb.

Not.

95. *Not* was once spelt 'no-whit,' which is the same as 'not a jot,' 'not at all;' so *not* is an Adverb, for it answers to the question *how much?* For example, in "I will *not* help you," the question may be put, "*How much* will you help him?" and the answer is "I will help him *not at all*, or *no-whit*," i. e. "I will *not* help him."

96. In parsing a Verb with 'not' in the middle of it, be careful not to call 'not' a part of the Verb. For example, in "I will *not* help him," the stating word or Verb is "I will help:" 'not' is the Adverb denying the statement. You may say that "I will help" states *what you will (not) do*.

EXERCISE XXXIX.

Separate the Adverbs from the italicized Verbs in the following Exercise : —

A fox that *had once lost* his tail in a trap *was not pleased* that his companions should have tails while he was tail-less. So he called them all together and said, "Look at me, I *am not burdened* as you are with a long bushy mass that serves no purpose except to clean the ground behind you. You *will never beat* me in a race as long as you bear this burden, and I *do not bear* it. If you are wise, you *will no longer wear* these useless weights; and I can show you how to cut them off in a moment." The younger foxes *listened admiringly*, and were all of them ready to cut off their tails. But a wise old fox got up and said, "That is all very well, Mr. Tail-less; but you *have not yet told* us how you came to cut off your tail, and I *will frankly confess* I *greatly suspect* a trap had something to do with it. At all events, you *did not find* out that a tail so encumbered you while you had a tail, and I *shall always believe* that, if ever your tail grows again, you *will not cut* it off."

EXERCISE XL.

Write or repeat what the italicized Verbs in the above Exercise state, and what question the Adverbs answer. For example : —

Am burdened states in what condition the fox is (not).

Not tells you *how much* he is burdened.

Shall believe states what the old fox will do.

Have told states what the tail-less fox had (not) done.

Yet tells you *when*, or *up to what time* the tail-less fox "had not told how he came, etc."

Always tells you *when* or *how long* the old fox will believe.

Answer the rest for yourself in the same way.

EXERCISE XLI.

Pick out the Nouns above, and write or repeat what the Adjectives tell you, and what Nouns the Pronouns are put for.

EXERCISE XLII. [SPECIMEN.]

Parse the italicized words in the following Exercise : —

Once a boy, wandering in the woods by night, *found* a glow-worm ; *it shone so beautifully* that he took it to *his* home. *Next* day *he* looked at it, but in vain. *Its* brightness had *quite* disappeared.

Word.	What the word does.
Once	Tells you <i>when</i> the boy found the glow-worm.
found	<i>States</i> what the boy <i>did</i> .
it	Is put <i>for</i> the glow-worm.
shone	<i>States</i> what it (the glow-worm) <i>did</i> .
so	Tells you <i>how beautifully</i> .
beautifully	Tells you <i>how</i> it shone.
his	Tells you <i>whose</i> home, and can come before a Noun.
Next	Tells you <i>which</i> day, and can come before the Noun.
he	Is <i>put for</i> the boy.
its	Tells you <i>whose</i> , and can come before a Noun.
quite	Tells you <i>how much</i> or <i>how far</i> it had disappeared.

Adverbs with Verbs omitted.

97. Now take this sentence, "I am ten years old." Strictly speaking, we ought not to be able to add any Adverb here; for, if a person knows that you are ten years old, he need not ask any question about your age. But boys often say "I am ten years old" when they mean they are a little more or less than ten years old. Consequently, when a boy says, "I am ten years old," the question arises "how far is that true?" So we ask, "Are you *exactly*, or *precisely*, or *just* ten?" Or else, "Are

What the word is.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is a Verb.

Therefore it is a Pronoun.

Therefore it is a Verb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adjective.

Therefore it is an Adjective.

Therefore it is a Pronoun.

Therefore it is an Adjective.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

you *only*, or *nearly*, or *almost* ten?" Or else, "Are you *quite* or *fully* ten?" And of course a boy may use any one of these Adverbs in his reply. So you see: —

98. An Adverb sometimes answers to the question "How far is this true?"

EXERCISE XLIII.

Insert some Adverbs, such as the above, in the following sentences: —

1. I am — ten years old. 2. He was — late to-day. 3. The train started — at ten o'clock. 4. I — fell; but Thomas caught me before I fell. 5. I am — certain that you are wrong. 6. But I am — certain that I am right.

99. This explains the use of such Adverbs as *perhaps, undoubtedly*, in “*Perhaps, undoubtedly, certainly, assuredly, possibly, probably*, he will come.” *Perhaps* does not tell you *how* he will come, but it tells you “*how far* it is *true* that he will come.” Others indicate possibility or probability, “he will *possibly, probably* come.”

100. Many of these Adverbs are added to call ⁽¹⁸⁾ attention to what you say; for example, “he will *really, certainly, verily, truly, positively, indeed, actually* come.”

EXERCISE XLIV.

Insert Adverbs expressing *possibility, probability, or certainty*, in the following sentences: —

1. He will — come, but it is not certain. 2. — he could not have heard you, else he would have answered. 3. — he did not hear me, but I fear he did. 4. He said he should — come: so I assured my friends that he would be present. 5. He may — have seen you; but if he had, a civil boy, as he is, would — have tried to help you.

Insert Adverbs, to call attention to what you say, in the following sentences: —

6. I am surprised at you, I am —. 7. — you will compel me to punish you. 8. The king will — be present himself, instead of sending his son. 9. I am — disgusted by such conduct. 10. Did he — say this?

Adverbs used in Questions. ⁽¹⁹⁾

101. The words *how? when? where?* and *why?* are themselves called Adverbs, as well as their answers, *so, thus; then; there; therefore.*

102. The following Adverbs may also be remembered: *whither? whence? hither, thither, hence, thence.* Insert some of these and other Adverbs of rest or motion in the following sentences: —

EXERCISE XLV.

1. — do you live now? I live in London; I have always lived —. 2. Will you begin in this manner? or — will you begin? I shall begin —. 3. Is this train coming from Derby, or — is it coming? 4. Is this train going to Derby, or — is it going? 5. Did he say this yesterday, or — did he say it? 6. — do you behave so badly? 7. The train is coming — and not from Derby.

EXERCISE XLVI. [SPECIMEN.]

Parse the italicized words in the following Exercise : —

“ *Why* are you *spoiling* my water?” said *the* wolf *savagely* to the lamb. The wolf *was drinking* at the higher part of the stream, and the lamb some way *below*, so that the wolf was *quite* wrong ; for the water *went* from the wolf *down* to the lamb, and could not come *back* to the wolf. So the lamb *quietly* replied “ *How* can I spoil *your* water? *It*

Word.	What the word does.
Why	Asks “ <i>why</i> are you spoiling?”
are spoiling	States <i>what</i> the lamb <i>was doing</i> (as the wolf said).
savagely	Tells you <i>how</i> the wolf spoke.
was drinking	States <i>what</i> the wolf <i>was doing</i> .
below	Tells you <i>where</i> the lamb was drinking.
quite	Tells you <i>how far</i> the wolf was wrong.
went	States <i>what</i> the water <i>did</i> .
down	Tells you <i>where</i> the water ran.
back	Tells you <i>where</i> the water could not run.
quietly	Tells you <i>how</i> the lamb replied.
How	Asks “ <i>how</i> can I spoil?”

comes from you to me." "*Perhaps* you are right," replied the wolf *more savagely* than before, "but why did you abuse me and call me a murderer?" "I *never* did," said the lamb. "Yes (²⁰), last year," said the wolf. "I was not born *then*," answered the trembling lamb. "Ah," replied the wolf, determined to pick a quarrel; "I remember, it was your father; *certainly* he abused me last July." "But my father died *early* in the spring," said the lamb. "Then it was your grandfather or great-grandfather;" and *at once* he fell on the helpless creature and tore her in pieces.

What the word is.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is a Verb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is a Verb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is a Verb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Word.	What the word does.
your	Tells you <i>whose</i> water, and can come before a Noun.
It	Is <i>put for</i> the water.
Perhaps	Answers to the question 'how far is it true?'
more	Tells you <i>how</i> savagely.
savagely	Tells you <i>how</i> the wolf screamed.
never	Tells you <i>when</i> the lamb abused the wolf.
then	Tells you <i>when</i> the lamb was not born.
certainly	Answers to the question 'how far is it true?'
early	Tells you <i>when</i> the lamb's father died.
at once	Tells you (in two words) <i>when</i> the wolf tore the lamb.

EXERCISE XLVII.

Parse the italicized words in the following Exercise: —

A *lazy fellow* going out one fine morning in March saw a swallow. "Summer is coming at once," said he, "I can sell my great-coat now, for I shall not want it again this year. Perhaps I

What the word is.

Therefore it is an Adjective.

Therefore it is a Pronoun.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverbial¹ Phrase.

shall get fifteen shillings for it, and I can live on them for two days without working." Next week there came a bitter frost, and the spendthrift wished too late that he had never sold his great-coat. Shivering with cold he came to the place where he had seen the swallow flying: there it lay stiff and dead. "Ah!" said the man, "why did I believe you? Now I see one swallow does not make a summer."

¹ See pages 39 and 61.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

103. SUPPOSE a friend writes to you asking (1) "Where are you living now?" or (2) "Whither are you moving?" The Adverbs (1) *here*, (2) *hither*, are not answer enough. What must you write back?

104. — (1.) If you are *at rest*, living in one place, you may answer, "I am *in* England, *near* London, *by* the Thames."

105. — (2.) If you are *in motion*, you may answer, "I am just now moving *into* London, *from* the country, *across* the Thames."

106. What have you been using instead of the Adverbs *here*, *hither*? You have been using a Noun and a word *placed before* the Noun, for example, '*in* England.' These words thus *placed before* Nouns are called **Prepositions**. (**Pre-** means *before*, **posit-** means *placed*.)

Prepositions of Rest.

107. Now look at this ruler. I am going to move it about, and I shall ask you where it is. Do not answer *there*, for that tells nobody anything. But answer thus: I shall mention some Noun or Pronoun, for example, 'head,' 'hand,' or 'me,' and

you shall tell me where the ruler is, by putting one of these *Prepositions* before the Noun or Pronoun that I call out.

108. See, I place it : — ⁽²¹⁾

<i>Above</i> my 'head.'	<i>Amid</i> or <i>among</i> some
<i>Across</i> or <i>athwart</i> my	other 'books.'
'knee.'	<i>At</i> my 'side.'

109. Now I take two or three books or other things, and scatter them *about* the 'desk' or place them *around* my 'pen-holder.' Then I take the ruler again and place it : —

<i>Before</i> my 'face.'	⁽²³⁾ <i>Near</i> my left 'hand.'
<i>Behind</i> my 'back.'	⁽²³⁾ <i>Next</i> another 'book.'
<i>Below</i> or <i>beneath</i> my	<i>On</i> my 'head.'
'seat.'	<i>Opposite</i> my 'eyes.'
<i>Beside</i> another 'ruler.'	<i>Outside</i> the 'desk.'
<i>Between</i> or <i>betwixt</i> my	<i>Over</i> my 'head.'
'hands.'	<i>Round</i> (see <i>Around</i>).
<i>Beyond</i> the 'desk.'	<i>Under</i> my 'seat.'
<i>By</i> my 'side.'	<i>With</i> some other 'rulers.'
⁽²²⁾ <i>Close to</i> my 'breast.'	<i>Within</i> the 'desk.'
<i>In</i> or <i>inside</i> the 'desk.'	<i>Without</i> ⁽²⁴⁾ the 'desk.'
<i>Instead of</i> , i. e. in the	
place of some other	
'ruler.'	

Prepositions of Motion.

110. So far, the ruler has been *at rest* when it has been once placed anywhere. But now I take the

ruler and a book, and set them in *motion*, making them as it were walk along the desk, so that the ruler will move : —

After the “book.”

111. Then I move the ruler : —

Along the ‘desk.’

Past a ‘slate.’

Down the slope of the ‘desk.’ *Through* my ‘finger and thumb.’

From my ‘face.’

² *To* the ‘desk.’

Into the ‘desk.’

Toward my ‘face.’

Off the ‘desk.’

Up the slope of the ‘desk.’

¹ *Out* of the ‘desk.’

EXERCISE XLVIII.

(1) A giant, coming into his castle, smells Jack the giant-killer hidden somewhere, and asks his cook, “Is he *inside* the cupboard?” etc. Make up six more similar questions, each one with a Preposition, “Is he —?” (2) “Which way did the mouse run?” Make up six answers, each one with a Preposition. (3) “Whither are you walking?” Six answers. (4) “Whither, whence, and where does the Thames flow?” Four answers.

How to Parse a Preposition.

112. A Preposition, for example, “on” in “He rode *on* a donkey,” is parsed thus : —

¹ Strictly *out* is now an Adverb, and *of* is a Preposition.

² *To*, when coming before a Verb, as ‘to walk,’ is often called part of the Verb, and not a Preposition. (See p. 106.)

"On" comes before 'donkey;' and it is not a Verb (see page 54), therefore it is a Preposition.

113. But remember, if the Preposition *to* precedes a Verb (as in "you ought *to carry*") "*to carry*" is treated as one Verb, *to* being called a part of the Verb.

114. Notice that sometimes the Preposition may have some Adjectives between it and its Noun, for example, "*on* one poor little *donkey*;" but you must ask yourself "*on* what?" and the answer will be not "*on* one" nor "*on* poor," but "*on a donkey*."

115. Before doing the next Exercise, you ought to be reminded that a Verb can express a *question* or *command*, as well as a *statement*.

116. Such Verbs may be parsed thus:—

Do put (4th line below), expresses a *question*: therefore it is a Verb.

Look (18th line), expresses a *command*: therefore it is a Verb.

EXERCISE XLIX.

Parse the italicized words in the following:—

An old man was once riding to market on a donkey. His son was walking by his side. "You are a lazy fellow," said the first stranger that met them: "Why do you not put the boy on the donkey?" The old man got down from the donkey and set the boy in his place; but before they had gone many yards, another stranger cried out, "What a shameful thing! That strong young

fellow is riding, while this old man is on his legs. Get down, young man." So, *the old man took his son off the donkey, and all three walked, man, boy, and donkey. As they passed through the next village, all the villagers laughed at them and shouted, "Why do you not both mount on the donkey?"* When *they heard* this, *they both* got up, *the old man* before, and *the young man* behind him. But when *they had come outside the village and a little way beyond it, two travellers* shouted at them, "*Look at those two big strong fellows on one poor little donkey! They ought to carry the donkey, for certainly the donkey cannot carry them.*" Again *the old man* got off, and *with great difficulty they fastened the donkey to a stout pole, and thus carried him between them on their shoulders.* But *in the next village the people* ran out to see *the ridiculous sight, and the laughter was louder than ever. Then the young man* said to his father, "*Had we not better try to please ourselves, for it seems impossible to please everybody.*"

How to tell a Preposition.

117. There are many other ⁽²⁵⁾ Prepositions beside those mentioned above; but you can always tell a Preposition in this way: it can take 'them' after it; for example, "*after them,*" "*of them,*" "*concerning them.*" An Adjective, Adverb, or Noun cannot take 'them' after it.

118. But a Verb can: "*I like them.*" True, but a Verb can take 'I,' 'he,' etc. before it, while a

Preposition cannot. You can say "*from* them," but not "he *froms* them." So remember:—

119. A Preposition can take 'them' after it, but not 'he' or 'I' before it.

How Prepositions are used.

120. — (1) What does '*of* the horse' tell us in "the swiftness *of* the horse," or what does '*with* the long tail' tell us in "the monkey *with* the long tail?" Here "*of* the horse" tells us *whose* 'swiftness' is meant, or helps us to *distinguish* 'swiftness'; and "*with* the long tail" points out *which* or *what sort of* 'monkey.' You might have used an Adjective, if you had liked, in the last sentence, and might have said, "the *long-tailed* monkey." So, you see, *the Preposition and the Noun together are much the same as an Adjective.*

121. — (2) Again what do the Prepositions and their Nouns tell us in "He travelled *in* haste, *with* speed, *for* me, *for the sake of*, *because of*, or *owing to*, his brother, *like* his brother, *on* Monday, *during* six days, *till* Tuesday, *since* Wednesday?" They answer one of the questions *how? when? how long? why?* etc. In other words, *the Preposition and the Noun together are sometimes much the same as an Adverb.*

122. Prepositions consisting of two or more words may be called Compound Prepositions.

EXERCISE L.

1. Some one comes into the room to ask for a boy. I ask him, "*Which* boy?" Make up ten answers, not with Adjectives alone, but with Prepositions and Nouns, such as "the boy *with* red hair," "the boy *on* the last desk," etc. 2. "*Which* of those dogs do you like best?" Make up ten answers with Prepositions and Nouns, such as "the dog *in* the kennel," etc. 3. "*How long* did you remain in the country?" Make up three answers, not with Adverbs, but with Prepositions, such as, *for, during, throughout*, etc. 4. "*Why* did you come back?" Make up three answers with Prepositions, such as, *owing to, because of, on account of*, etc. 5. "*How* did you travel?" Three answers.

123. You see, then, that a Preposition with its Noun may answer the following questions answered by *Adjectives*: —

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------|
| 1. <i>Which?</i> | "The pen <i>in</i> my hand." | } Adjectives. |
| 2. <i>Whose?</i> | "The skin <i>of</i> the lion." | |
| 3. (a) <i>Of what sort?</i> | "A man <i>of</i> honor." | |
| 3. (b) <i>In what condition?</i> | "A woman <i>in</i> sorrow." | |
| 4. <i>In what order?</i> | "The boy <i>at</i> the top." | |

124. A Preposition with its Noun may also answer the following questions answered by *Adverbs*: —

- | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|------------|
| 1. <i>How</i> did you | " <i>On</i> horse-back, <i>with</i> | } Adverbs. |
| travel? | speed." | |
| 2. <i>When?</i> | " <i>On</i> Monday." | |
| 3. <i>Where?</i> | " <i>In</i> Yorkshire." | |
| 4. <i>Why?</i> | " <i>Because</i> of my | |
| | brother's illness." | |

125. Consequently the following definition may be given of a Preposition : —

126. A preposition is a word that can be placed before a Noun or Pronoun, so that the Preposition and Noun or Pronoun together can make up an Adjective-phrase or an Adverb-phrase.¹

Prepositions are sometimes used as Adverbs.

127. In "he lives *up* on the hill, but I live *down* in the valley," 'up' and 'down' answer the question *where?* and do not come before Nouns. They are therefore not Prepositions, but Adverbs.

128. But, in "he ran *down* the hill, and I ran *up* the hill," 'down' and 'up' make you ask, '*up* what?' '*down* what?': and they come before 'hill,' which supplies the answer to the questions. They are therefore Prepositions here, and not Adverbs.

Prepositions are sometimes used as parts of other words.

129. — (1) In "the horse knocked *down* a child," or "a woman picked *up* the child," you cannot sep-

¹ For the usual Definition, see Note 25*. See also Preface, p. viii.

arate *down* from *knocked*, and say ‘*down* what?’ as you can in “he ran *down* the hill;” *knocked down* makes one Verb, and so does *picked up*. Consequently, *down* and *up* are not Prepositions here, but parts of the Compound Verbs *knock down* and *pick up*.

130. — (2) When a Preposition is irregularly used before an Adjective or an Adverb, as in the Adverbial Phrases ‘*at* first,’ ‘*in* vain,’ ‘*for* once,’ you may parse the two words together as an Adverbial Phrase. (See p. 61.)

EXERCISE LI. [SPECIMEN.]

Parse the italicized words in the following Exercise : —

The hare scoffed *at* the tortoise *for* his slowness, and challenged him to a race. “Let us run,” said she, “*up to* yonder rock, and you *shall have* a start of half a mile.” “Done,” said the tortoise, and *off* he plodded. The hare *sat down* to watch him and laughed till *her* sides ached. *At last*, tired *with*

Word.	What the word does.
at	Comes <i>before</i> ‘tortoise.’
for	Comes <i>before</i> ‘slowness.’
up	Tells you <i>where</i> they were to race.
to	Comes <i>before</i> ‘rock.’
shall have	Makes a statement about ‘you.’
off	Tells you <i>which way</i> he plodded.

laughing, she fell *asleep*. *Meantime*, the tortoise had crept *up* the hill and *was* steadily *approaching* the goal. *Now, too late*, the hare awoke from her sleep, and dashed *after* him with all her speed: and indeed, — so swift was she — she nearly *caught* him *up*. But, before she had reached the top, the tortoise had crept *down* the hill, and was *up* on the rock, waiting *for* the prize.

131. Before doing this Exercise, note the curious word 'asleep' in the seventh line: "she fell *asleep*."

132. 'A-sleep' used to be spelt 'on sleep,' like 'a-ground,' 'on board' or 'a-board.' It does not exactly tell you *how* the hare 'fell,' but rather *into what state* the hare fell or came. It is an Adverb. You can see this in "I lay *asleep*." *Asleep* is put for 'on sleep.' In the Bible we find "he fell *on sleep*." Sometimes you might suppose that 'asleep' and 'awake' are Adjectives; for example, in "He is *asleep* or *awake*," because here the words seem to tell you in *what condition* he is. But neither 'asleep' nor 'awake' can *come before a Noun*; therefore neither of them is an Adjective.

What the word is.

Therefore it is a Preposition.

Therefore it is a Preposition.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is a Preposition.

Therefore it is a Verb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Word.	What the word does.
sat down	States what the hare did.
him	Is put <i>for</i> 'the tortoise.'
her	Tells you <i>whose</i> sides.
At last	Tells you <i>when</i> ; but it is in two words.
with	<i>Comes before</i> 'laughing.'
asleep	Is put <i>for</i> 'on sleep,' and it is one word.
Meantime	Tells you <i>when</i> .
up	<i>Comes before</i> 'the hill.'
was ap- proaching	States what the tortoise <i>was doing</i> .
Now	Tells you <i>when</i> .
too	Tells you <i>how</i> late.
late	Tells you <i>when</i> .
after	<i>Comes before</i> 'tortoise.'
caught up	States what the hare nearly did.
down	<i>Comes before</i> 'the hill.'
up	Tells you <i>where</i> the tortoise was.
for	<i>Comes before</i> 'prize.'

133. Notice how Prepositions and Nouns may gradually become Adverbs:—

- (1) "I go *on-my-feet*." Ordinary Adverbial Phrase.
- (2) "I go *on-foot*." Condensed Adverbial Phrase.
- (3) "I go *a-foot*." Adverb.

What the word is.

Therefore it is a Verb.
Therefore it is a Pronoun.
Therefore it is an Adjective.
Therefore it is an Adverbial Phrase.

Therefore it is a Preposition.
Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.
Therefore it is a Preposition.
Therefore it is a Verb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.
Therefore it is an Adverb.
Therefore it is an Adverb.
Therefore it is a Preposition.
Therefore it is a Verb.
Therefore it is a Preposition.
Therefore it is an Adverb.
Therefore it is a Preposition.

134. An Adverbial Phrase is a group of words that answers one of the questions *how, when, where, why*.

135. Wherever you can separate a Preposition from a Verb, as in 'scoff at,' above, you should do so. You can ask "At what?" *Answer* "a tortoise." Therefore *at* is a Preposition.

EXERCISE LII.

Parse the italicized words in —

A respectable country-mouse once invited a fashionable young town-mouse to supper. But the town-mouse ate nothing. In vain the country-mouse spread out her store of peas and her dainty scraps of bacon; nothing could please her guest. At last she begged the town-mouse to tell her what he liked. He mentioned at once a thousand dishes quite new to the country-mouse. She confessed with shame she had not heard of them. But the town (¹⁰) mouse consoled her. "Come to my home in the city," said he. "There you shall taste these good things." At once the country-mouse shut up her house and went back with her fashionable friend to the rich city. But what happened there I will tell you in Exercise LXII.

CHAPTER VIII.

CONJUNCTIONS.

136. SUPPOSE you are punished for being late at school. You want to explain to your parents why you were punished, and you begin, "I was punished —;" how can you go on so as to explain why? You might use two sentences and say "I was punished. I was late;" but it will be much better to join those two sentences together with the word *because*, and to say, "I was punished *because* I was late."

EXERCISE LIII.

Insert *joining words*, such as 'because,' 'since,' 'as,' 'though,' between the following sentences: —

1. Harry knocked Tom down — Tom tried to kick him. 2. The willow was bending — The wind was blowing. 3. I will go away — You do not want me. 4. The powder exploded — The soldier dropped the match. 5. The tortoise beat the hare — The hare was the swifter of the two. 6. The tortoise beat the hare — The tortoise was the steadier of the two.

EXERCISE LIV.

Insert *joining words*, such as 'when,' 'before,' 'after,' 'while,' between the following sentences: —

1. William Rufus reigned — William the Conqueror died. 2. We saw the lightning — We heard the thunder. 3. The riflemen fired — The bugle sounded. 4. The steed starves — The grass grows.

EXERCISE LV.

Insert *joining words*, such as 'if,' 'unless,' 'though,' between the following sentences:—

1. You will be poor — You are idle. 2. You will not be respected — You are truthful. 3. The grasshopper would not have starved in winter — She had not been lazy all the summer. 4. I am not afraid — You threaten me.

137. All these words might be called 'joiners,' but they are called 'Conjunctions,' which word means much the same thing. A 'junction' is the name given to a place where two railways are *joined*; and in the same way a *Conjunction* is the name given to a word that *conjoins* or *joins together* (*con-* means *together*) two sentences.

138. **A Conjunction is a word that joins two sentences together.**

How to make a list of Conjunctions.

139. Let us take two sentences, such as "I liked John," and "John liked me," and let us try to find words that can join these two sentences together. These words will be Conjunctions. By slightly changing the sentences, for instance, altering 'likes' into 'dislikes,' we shall obtain new Conjunctions.

I liked John	(1) { and also besides moreover }	John liked me
I liked John	(2) { after * till * before * (or) when * until * while * }	John liked me
I liked John	(3) { as * because * for since * }	John liked me
I liked John	(4) { consequently hence so therefore }	John liked me
I liked John	(5) { but, however nevertheless notwithstanding }	John disliked me
I liked John	(6) { although * though * whereas * }	John disliked me

I will help John	(7) { if * provided that * }	John helps me
I will not help John	(8) { unless * }	John helps me
I shall go to John	(9) { or }	John will come to me
I will help John	(10) { that * in order that * }	John may like me
I will help John	(11) { lest * for fear that * }	John should or may dislike me
I helped John so	(12) { that }	John liked me
The ice was so thin	{ that }	The boys fell in

140. Note that after some Conjunctions (all those marked * above) the *second* sentence, preceded by its Conjunction, may be placed *first*, without altering the meaning.

141. For example, instead of saying "I liked John *after* John liked me," you may say, without altering the sense, "*After* John liked me I liked John."

EXERCISE LVI.

Insert Conjunctions, from Class (2) above, *at the beginning* of the following : —

1. — winter set in. The ant had gathered a good store of food. 2. — printing was invented. People used to write books with pen and ink. 3. — printing was invented. Books became much cheaper. 4. — The shepherd was sleeping. The sheep were straying. 5. — You have had your innings. I shall have mine.

EXERCISE LVII.

Insert Conjunctions, from Class (3) above *at the beginning* of the following : —

1. — Tom tried to kick Harry. Harry knocked him down. 2. — The wind blew. The willow bent. 3. — It was a fine day. They determined to have a game at cricket. 4. — The gun-powder was wet. The gun did not go off. 5. — He says he is sorry. He ought to show by his conduct that he is sorry.

EXERCISE LVIII.

Insert Conjunctions, from Classes (6), (7), and (8) *at the beginning* of the following : —

1. — You do not sow. You will not reap. 2. — You are careful. You will not get the prize. 3. — The lazy sailor had thrown out the rope at once. The drowning boy would have been saved. 4. — He promised great things. He did nothing.

EXERCISE LIX.

Insert Conjunctions, from Classes (10), (11), and (12), *between* the following : —

1. The farmer sows. — He may reap. 2. The boy ran under shelter. — He might get wet. 3. We must eat. — We may live. 4. He worked hard. — He should lose the prize. 5. We ought to work. — We may earn our living. 6. This wood is so heavy. — It will not float.

EXERCISE LX.

Insert Conjunctions from Classes (10) and (11), *at the beginning* of the following : —

1. — The baby might not catch cold. The sailor wrapped her in his coat. 2. — You may be mistaken. Look over the sum again. 3. — You may be ready for an accident. Take two strings to your bow. 4. — The wild beasts should attack them by night. The hunters kindled a fire.

142. Now join together the following sentences : —

I like Thomas		I like John as much.
I like Thomas		I like John more.
I was sent for		I came as soon.
I like pears		I like apples less.

143. You might join them by inserting *but* or *and* between them; but it is more usual to insert *as* or *than*, and to *reverse* the order of the sentences thus : —

(13)

I like John as much	as ⁽²⁶⁾	I like Thomas.
I like John more	than	I like Thomas.
I came as soon	as ⁽²⁶⁾	I was sent for.
I like apples less	than	I like pears.

EXERCISE LXI.

Join together by Conjunctions the following sentences : —

1. I ate some plums. — I was warned against them. 2. The horse stopped suddenly. — The rider was thrown off. 3. — A train (can travel). The swiftest race-horse cannot travel as fast.¹ 4. — (I like) apples. I like pears better.¹ 5. The rainbow appears. — The sun is shining. 6. I jumped out of the train. — It was still in motion. 7. I did not know my lesson. — I got down in my class. 8. The old woman scolded Alfred. — He had forgotten to watch the cakes. 9. — Word was brought of the accident. The doctor set out as soon.¹

144. The Conjunction *too* must come *after* some word in the second sentence : —

(1) I liked John ; (2) John (*too*) liked me.

How to find the Sentences joined by a Conjunction.

145. First repeat the Conjunction, and ask '*what?*' after it. For example, in the first sentence of the

¹ Reverse the order of these Sentences.

Exercise below: "*when* what?" The answer will give you the sentence belonging to the Conjunction. "*When* (1) the two mice reached the city." Now ask "*What? when* (1) the two mice reached the city." Answer: (2) "They sat down at once to dine." (1) and (2) are the sentences joined together by the Conjunction *when*.

146. *And* means *in addition to*, or *besides*; and *but*, when used as a Conjunction, means that what is going to be spoken of is *different* from what has gone before. Consequently, after you have found the sentence belonging to *and* or *but*, for example, "*and* (1) John liked me," or "*but* (1) John liked me," you can ask, "*What* beside John's liking me?" or "*What* was there different from John's disliking me;" answer, (2) "I liked John," or (2) "I disliked John."

147. Remember that with *and*, *but*, *for*, and all the Conjunctions not marked * on pages 65–66 you must look *back*, not forward, for your second sentence.

EXERCISE LXII.²⁷ [SPECIMEN.]

Write or repeat what sentences are joined together by the italicized Conjunctions in the following Exercise:—

When the two mice reached the city, they sat down at once to dinner. The town-mouse was most attentive to his guest; he brought out the choicest dishes in his larder, *and* heaped her plate with dainties. The poor country-mouse was filled with admiration, *for* she was not accustomed to such

splendor. At home she dined off wooden trenchers, *but* here their dishes were of silver. *Moreover*, they were sitting on velvet, *whereas* at home she had nothing but plain straw. "Ah!" said she at last, "*if* I could live like this, I should like always to live in town." "Come, by all means," replied her host; "I will gladly make room for you, *if* you will accept a room in my house." *While* the country-mouse was thanking him for his kind offer, they suddenly heard a noise: *and*, *before* she had time to ask what was the matter, up jumped the town-mouse, *and* ran for his life. She followed him, breathless with fear, *and* only just escaped the claws of a monstrous striped animal, which, the town-mouse informed her, was called a cat. *After* all was quiet again, the town-mouse begged her to be seated again *that* dinner might go on as before. But the country-mouse replied, "You are very kind; *but* I would rather go back to my quiet country home. *Though* there are no dainties there, *yet* there are no cats either. I like dried peas in quiet better *than* (I like) bacon and cheese in the midst of fears."

When. (See above, page 70.)

And: "*and* what?" Answer: *and* (1) "heaped her plate with dainties." What, *besides* his heaping her plate with dainties? Answer: (2) "he brought out the choicest dishes of his larder."

For: "*for* what?" Answer: *for* (1) "she was not accustomed to such splendor." (*For* means 'because'.) What, *because* she was not accustomed to such splendor? Answer: (2) "the poor country-mouse was filled with admiration."

But: “*but* what?” Answer: *but* (1) “here their dishes were of silver.” What was there *different* from this elsewhere? Answer: (2) “at home she dined off wooden trenchers.”

Moreover: “*moreover* what?” Answer: *moreover* (1) “they were sitting on velvet.” What, *besides* the fact that they were sitting on velvet? Answer: (2) “their dishes were of silver.”

Whereas: “*whereas* what?” Answer: *whereas* (1) “at home she had nothing but plain straw.” (*Whereas*, like *but*, generally means that something different is stated in one sentence from what is stated in the other.) What was there *different* from her having nothing but plain straw at home? Answer: (2) “they were sitting on velvet.”

If: “*if* what?” Answer: *if* (1) “I could live like this.” What, *if* I could live like this? Answer: (2) “I should like always to live in town.”

If: “*if* what?” Answer: *if* (1) “you will accept a room in my house.” What, *if* you will accept a room in my house? Answer: (2) “I will gladly make room for you.”

While: “*while* what?” Answer: *while* (1) “the country-mouse was thanking him for his kind offer.” What, *while* the country-mouse was thanking him for his kind offer? Answer: (2) “they suddenly heard a noise.”

Now notice the next Conjunction carefully.

And: “*and* what?” The next word to *and* is *before*, which is itself a Conjunction, followed by the sentence, “she had time.” Now remember:

148. When two Conjunctions come together, parse the second Conjunction first.

Before: “*before* what?” Answer: *before* (1) “she had time to ask what was the matter.” What, *before* she had time to ask what was the matter? Answer: (2) “up jumped the town-mouse.”

Now we go back to *and*.

And: “*and* what?” Answer: (1) “up jumped the town-mouse.” What happened beforehand, *besides* the fact that the town-mouse jumped up? Answer: (2) “they suddenly heard a noise.”

The next three Conjunctions are easy, and can be parsed by the pupil.

That: “*that* what?” Answer: *that* (1) “dinner might go on as before.” What was done *in order that* dinner might go on as before! Answer: (2) “the town-mouse begged her to be seated again.”

But: “*but* what?” Answer: *but* (1) “I would rather go back to my home.” What was there *different from*, i. e. likely to prevent the country-mouse’s going back? Answer: the kindness of the town-mouse, i. e. (2) “you are very kind.”

Though: “*though* what?” Answer: *though* (1) “there are no dainties there.” What is there, though there are no dainties? Answer: (2) “there are no cats.”

Yet (which might be left out without altering the sense) joins the same two sentences as *though*.

Than: “*than* what?” Answer: *than* (1) “I like bacon and cheese in the midst of fears.” What do I

like better "than I like bacon and cheese in the midst of fears?" Answer: (2) "I like dried peas in quiet."

EXERCISE LXIII.

Write or repeat what sentences are joined together by the italicized Conjunctions in the following Exercise: —

Once, *when* the weather was very dry, a thirsty crow searched everywhere for water, *but* she could not find a drop. *While* she was croaking for sorrow, she spied a jug. Down she flew at once, *and* eagerly pushed in her bill; *but* it was of no use. There was plenty of water in the jug, *but* she could not reach it, *because* the neck of the vessel was so narrow. *After* she had tried in vain for half an hour to reach the water, she next attempted to tip the jug over; *but* it was too heavy for her, *and* she could not stir it. Just *when* she was on the point of giving up in despair, a new thought struck her. "*If*," said she, "I drop some stones into the jug, the water will rise higher, *and* in time it will rise up to my bill." At once, *though* she was nearly fainting with thirst, she bravely set to work. *As* each stone fell, the water rose; *and*, *before* half an hour had passed, the clever crow had drunk every drop in the jug.

All that you need write down in doing this Exercise is the pair of sentences joined by each Conjunction, thus: —

When joins together

1. "the weather was very dry"
2. "a thirsty crow . . . water."

Conjunctions with Verbs omitted.

149. Now here is a difficulty. Take some sentences with Conjunctions : —

- (1) John *and* Thomas came.
- (2) Pears are better *than* apples.
- (3) Beef is as good *as* mutton.

150. Where are the two sentences joined together by each of these Conjunctions? Take sentence (1) : "Thomas came" is one sentence, but where is the other?

151. The answer is that sentence (1) is a short way of saying two sentences, viz. : "John came," and "Thomas came." So that *and* does really join together two sentences.

152. In the same way, sentence (2) is a short way of saying "Apples are good." "Pears are better" ⁽²⁸⁾; and (3) is a short way of saying, "Mutton is good." "Beef is as good." ⁽²⁹⁾

153. But you cannot always easily find out the sentences that are joined together by *and*, *than*; and therefore, unless your teacher tells you to the contrary, you may simply write down 'Conjunction' opposite *both*, *and*, *than*, without mentioning what sentences they join together. ⁽³⁰⁾

Pairs of Conjunctions.

154. Sometimes a Conjunction (which might be left out without altering the sense) is put in to prepare the way for another Conjunction, for example : —

(*Either*) I like John *or* I dislike John.

(*Not only*) do I like John, *but also* John likes me.

The city was (*both*) (⁸¹) taken *and* destroyed.

155. In these cases you may write down *either*, *not only*, and *both*, simply as Conjunctions : for they join the same sentences as are joined by *or*, *but*, *also*, and.

156. Again, sometimes a Conjunction (which might be left out without altering the sense) is inserted just to mark the beginning of the second sentence, for example :

Though you dislike me, (*yet*) I like you.

Because you have helped me, (*therefore*) I will help you.

157. In these cases you may write down *yet*, and *therefore*, simply as Conjunctions, for they join the same sentences as are joined by *though* and *because*.

EXERCISE LXIV.

Write or repeat what sentences are joined by the following italicized Conjunctions : —

A conceited young cock was angry at being *

scolded * by his mother. *So* (p. 65, 4)¹ one night he said to himself, "My mother is older *than* I am : *but* I am as wise *as* my mother. She told me not to go near the well in the farm-yard : *but* what harm is there * in a well? I will go to the well as soon *as* the sun rises." *When* the sun rose, out he went, *before* his mother was quite awake. ⁽⁸²⁾ * He peeped over the brink of the well *and* saw a young cock at the bottom. "*Either* my mother was very foolish *or*¹ she did not speak the truth," said the foolish cockerel. "*Not only* did she warn me against the well, *but* she *also* said no chicken could * live down there. *But* (*unless* my eyes deceive me) I see a chicken of my own age and size. See! I believe it wants to fight." Immediately he clapped his wings *and* crowed, as * much * as * to * say,* " *If* you want to * fight,* I am ready for you." Then, *when* his feathers were well ruffled, he looked down again. There was the young cock with ruffled feathers threatening * him from the bottom of the well. *Though* his mother had warned him a thousand times against the well, *yet* the cockerel thought of nothing but conquering ⁽⁸³⁾ * this new enemy. *So* down he leapt, *and* never came up again.

EXERCISE LXV.

Parse all the words in the Exercise above, except those marked *.

¹ Sometimes the second question can be asked more easily by slightly altering the Conjunction : "What happened *so* (*that*) one day he said to himself?" "What happened, *or* (*else*) she did not speak the truth?"

Pairs of Conjunctions.

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EXERCISE LXV.

Parse all the words in the Exercise above, except those marked *.

¹ Sometimes the second question can be asked more easily by slightly altering the Conjunction : "What happened *so* (*that*) one day he said to himself?" "What happened, *or* (*else*) she did not speak the truth?"

Adverbs used as Conjunctions.

158. Remember that *so*, *now*, *then*, and other words sometimes used as Adverbs, are not Adverbs but Conjunctions, when they join sentences together.

159. It is very easy to tell which Part of Speech each of these words is, if you first ask what it *does*. For example, in "He is *so* good," *so* tells you *how* good he is, therefore it is an Adverb. But in the last sentence of Exercise LXIV. *so* joins together (1) "down he leapt" and (2) "the cockerel thought of nothing but, etc." Therefore it is a Conjunction.

160. The only difficulty is, that sometimes Conjunctions like *so*, *therefore*, *consequently*, etc., might be said to 'tell you *why*,' and therefore to be Adverbs. Where a word seems to have the force of an Adverb as well as the force of a Conjunction, it may be called an *Adverbial Conjunction*.

Conjunctions following an incomplete Sentence.

161. Take such a sentence as "I asked," or "he explained." Each of these makes a statement and therefore each may be called a sentence: but each is incomplete, making us ask the question, "asked what?" "explained what?" Now what words can join each of these to another sentence, for example, to "John was travelling?"

I asked	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{how} \\ \text{when} \\ \text{where} \\ \text{whether} \\ \text{whither} \\ \text{whence} \\ \text{why} \end{array} \right\}$	John was travelling.
He explained		

I asked	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if}^1 \\ \text{that} \end{array} \right\}$	John was travelling.
He explained		

162. All these words then are Conjunctions: and observe that all of them, except *if* and *that*, are also used as asking or Interrogative Adverbs. (⁸⁴) So be careful to distinguish them, when used as Interrogative Adverbs, from the same words when used as Conjunctions.

EXERCISE LXVI. [SPECIMEN.]

Parse the italicized words in the following, and show what sentences are joined together by the italicized Conjunctions: —

Two travellers were talking about the color of the chameleon. “*When* I saw it,” said one, “it was lying quietly in the shade, *so* I had a good sight of it; and I never saw *so* beautiful a blue.” “Blue!” said the other, “it’s *as* green *as* the grass. You could * not have * fancied * *that* it was blue, *if* you had seen it *as* I did, basking * in the sun and feeding * on the air.” “Nonsense,” said the first, “do you mean to say *that* I have no eyes?” From words

¹ It is better to use *whether* than *if* after ‘ask.’

they would * soon have * come * to blows; *but* a third traveller *just then* came up and asked them *why* they were quarrelling. *When* they told him the cause of their dispute, he burst out laughing.*
 “*Why* do you laugh at us?” said they. “*Because*,” replied he, “I have a chameleon in my pocket, *and*

Word.	What the word does.
when	<i>Joins</i> { “it was lying” “I saw it”
so	” { “it was lying in the shade” “I had a good sight of it”
so	Tells you how beautiful.
as	(Put for ‘so.’) Tells you <i>how</i> green.
as	<i>Joins</i> { “it is as green” “the grass (is green)”
that	” { “you could not have fancied” “it was blue”
if	” { “you could not . . . blue” “you had seen it . . . air”
as	” { “you had seen it” “I did, <i>i.e.</i> I saw it”
that	” { “do you mean to say?” “I have no eyes”
but	” { “they would have . . . blows” “a third . . . came up”
just	Means “precisely,” answers to the question “ <i>how far is it true</i> ,” goes with <i>then</i> .
then	Tells you <i>when</i> .
why	<i>Joins</i> { “asked them” “they were quarelling”
when	” { “they told . . . dispute” “he burst . . . laughing.”

was looking at it only * (⁸⁵) last night; *so* I ought to know what color it is. I will *now* produce it, and will prove that it is neither blue nor green, but blacker *than* ink. *Here* it is, gentlemen." *But now* it* was his turn to look foolish; *for* it was as white *as* snow.

What the word is.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

} Therefore it is an Adverb.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

Word.	What the word does.
why	<i>Asks why</i>
because	<i>Joins</i> { " I laugh " <i>omitted</i>
	{ " I have . . . pocket "
and	{ " I have . . . pocket "
	{ " I was looking . . . night "
so	{ " I was looking . . . night "
	{ " I ought to know "
now	Tells you <i>when</i> .
than	<i>Joins</i> { " it is blacker "
	{ " ink (is black) "
here	Tells you <i>where</i> , etc.
but	<i>Joins</i> { " (he boasted) ' here it is ' "
	{ " now it . . . foolish "
now	Tells you <i>when</i> .
for	<i>Joins</i> { " it was . . . foolish "
	{ " it was . . . snow "
as	{ " it was as (so) white "
	{ " snow (is white) "

EXERCISE LXVII.

Parse all the words in the Exercise above except those marked *.

EXERCISE LXVIII.

Parse the italicized words in the following Exercise, showing what sentences are joined together by the Conjunctions : —

Once a girl was carrying a pan of milk to market. As she went, she began to count up the money she would get, and she tried to fancy what she would

What the word is.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

Therefore it is an Adverb.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

} Therefore it is a Conjunction.

do with it. "When," said she, "I have sold all my milk, I shall have five shillings. After I have laid out my five shillings in new-laid eggs, I shall have ⁽⁸⁶⁾ between sixty and seventy chickens. Though some of these may die, I shall have at least fifty pullets, which I will fatten that I may sell them next Christmas ; for at Christmas poultry fetch a good price. Then, in the spring, I will buy the best dress that can be had for money, and not a girl in the village shall be finer than I. So all the lads in the village will want me to be their partner when we dance at the fair ; but I shall be a fine lady and

tell them to keep their distance, tossing my head thus." As she said these words, up went her head and down went the milk.

Do not count your chickens before they are hatched.

CHAPTER IX.

OTHER PRONOUNS.

(1) * Adjective-Pronouns. (* 86)

163. SOMETIMES an Adjective is used without its Noun for shortness. For example: "These fish are the *best* (fish) I have." "I have only ten marbles; give me *two* (marbles) more." "What book is *this* (book)? Give me *that* (book), and take *this* (book) away." "*Which* (book) would you like of these books?" In all these cases the Nouns (which are left out for shortness) can be supplied after their Adjectives, *from the sentence*.

164. But you cannot supply the Noun after *that* in "The reign of George IV. was not so long as *that* of George III." *That* is here put for "*the* reign," and not for "*that* reign." Again, *that* is often put for a Noun-phrase, as in "Is he ill? I am sorry to hear *that*." Here *that* is put for "the fact of his being ill," "the news of his illness," or some other Noun-phrase.

165. Consequently, in these cases, *that* is not an Adjective, but a Pronoun. And generally, whenever you meet with a word often used as an Adjective, and find that it has no Noun with it, and that you cannot supply a Noun *from the sentence*, you may

say that the word is here not an Adjective, but a Pronoun.

166. For example: in "*some* think one thing, *others* think another (thing)," *some* is put for "*some* persons," and *others* is put for "*other* (not others) persons." The word "persons" is not supplied *from the sentence*. Therefore *some* and *others* are Pronouns. But, after "another" you can repeat the word "thing" *from the sentence*: therefore "another" is an Adjective, with Noun omitted.

167. Hence the words *mine*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, *ours*, *theirs*, have no right to be called Adjectives, for you cannot supply a Noun after any of them. For example, in "This is your book, and not *mine*," *mine* is put for "my book," and not for "mine book," and must therefore be called a Pronoun, and not an Adjective. (* See § 170.)

168. *What*, when used to ask a question, should be called a Pronoun, unless it has a Noun with it. For in "*What* did he say?" "*What* do you think?" you cannot supply a Noun after *what*, at least, *not from the sentence*; consequently it is not an Adjective. But in "*What* song did she sing?" *what* asks *which song*, and is, of course, an Adjective. (* See, also, § 169, III., *below*.)

EXERCISE LXIX. [SPECIMEN.]

Parse the italicized words in the following Exercise:—

A kind, but (⁸⁷) rather foolish bear was very fond of a wood-cutter. He shared his food with the man,

and protected him from all the wild beasts in the forest, so that *none* of them ventured to attack him. One day, when the wood-cutter was very weary, "Why do you not lie down," said the bear, "and sleep for half-an-hour?" "How shall I keep off the wolves?" said the wood-cutter. "*That* is my business, not *yours*," replied the bear. So the wood-cutter lay down and slept, while the bear watched him. Presently, up came the wolves, but, though they were *seven* to one, their courage was not equal to *that* of the bear: so they slunk away. After *that*, came a tigress: but *this* did not frighten Bruin, and even the tigress, though she snarled and showed her teeth, did not attack the sleeping man. Next came a roaring lion, but the brave bear only got up and shook himself, and stood on one side of the wood-cutter: so the lion passed by on the *other*. Last came a bee, and with her buzzing nearly waked the sleeper. "Go * away," said the bear. "I shall not," said the bee: "this forest is *ours*, not *yours*." "No one else has disturbed my friend," said the bear, in a rage; "and will you venture?" "Yes, I will," replied the bee: "*others* are cowards, perhaps, but I am *none*." With *these* words, she lighted on the cheek of the wood-cutter. At *this*, the bear lost all patience; he lifted his huge paw, and struck the bee with all his might. The blow killed the bee, but nearly killed the wood-cutter too (⁸⁸), and bruised him so badly that for months afterwards he remembered the kindness of the foolish bear.

None is put for “*no* (not *none*) wild beast.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

That is put for “keeping off the wolves.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

Yours is put for “*your* (not *yours*) business.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

Seven is put for “*seven* (wolves):” “Wolves” can be supplied *from the sentence*. Therefore “seven” is an Adjective, with Noun omitted.

That is put for “*the* (not *that*) courage.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

That is put for “the slinking away of the wolves.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

This is put for “the coming of the tigress.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

Other is put for “*other* (side).” “Side” is supplied *from the sentence*. Therefore *other* is an Adjective, with Noun omitted.

Ours is put for “*our* (not *ours*) forest.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

Yours is put for “*your* (not *yours*) forest.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

Others is put for “*other* (not *others*) animals.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

None is put for “*no* (not *none*) coward.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

These tells you *what* words. Therefore it is an Adjective.

This is put for “the lighting of the bee on the man’s cheek.” Therefore it is a Pronoun.

EXERCISE LXX.

Parse every word in the above Exercise.

EXERCISE LXXI.

Parse the italicized words in the following : —

The owl and the eagle struck up a friendship. "How shall I know your young *ones*?" (³⁹) said the eagle. "I have no fear that you will attack *mine*, but I wish to spare *yours*." "My children," replied the owl, "are the most beautiful birds in the forest; you will see *none* equal to them anywhere. Their plumage is as white as snow, their voice is sweeter than *that* of a nightingale, their eyes like (⁴⁰) *those* of a gazelle." "You astonish me," replied the eagle; "I have met many birds in my time, *some* very beautiful, but never *any* equal to *these*. However, I shall easily know them when I meet them. Now I will wish you good-day." Away flew the eagle, and came in a few moments to the nest of the owl. When he spied the ugly little nestlings, he said "These at least can * not * be * the children of my friend, so I will have them for dinner." Just when he was on the point of killing them, the owl flew down screaming * with terror and anger. The eagle stopped in time, and explained that he had not known them. "But," added he, "*this* (⁴¹) is your fault, not mine. You ought * not to * think * that your children will seem to *others* the *same* as they seem to you."

EXERCISE LXXII.

Parse all words in the above, except those marked *.

* 169. We see, then, that certain words are used both as Pronouns and as Adjectives; — as Pronouns, when they stand *alone*, *instead of* Nouns; — as Adjectives, when they stand *with* Nouns, to *qualify* them. Because of this double use, they are called either **Adjective-Pronouns** or (though less commonly) **Pronominal** (that is, **Pronoun-)** **Adjectives**. (*⁴¹) They are: —

I. DEMONSTRATIVES, — *this, that, these, those*;

II. INDEFINITES, — *any, some, all, both, many, few, one*; *each, either, neither*; *such, other*; (*⁴²)

III. *Which, what, and their compounds*. (See § 201.)

(2) **Possessive Adjectives and Pronouns.**

* 170. Two groups of words: —

(1) *My, our, thy, your, his, her, its, their, and whose* (*⁴³);

(2) *Mine, ours, thine, yours, his, hers, its, theirs, and whose*; —

denote Possession, and are therefore called **Possessives**. (1) are used only as Adjectives, (2) only as Pronouns; but three words, *his, its, and whose*, (*⁴⁴) have the same form in each group, and the two groups are closely related both in origin and in meaning. (*⁴⁵)

(3) Indefinite Pronouns.

* 171. The following **Indefinites** are used only as Pronouns, — *none*, *aught*, *naught*; the compounds of *some*, *any*, *every* and *no* with *one*, *thing*, and *body*; *somewhat*; and the phrases *each other* and *one another*.

* EXERCISE LXXIII.

Write a number of sentences, using correctly the words named in §§ 169–171. Whenever you can, use the same word first as a *Pronoun*, and again as an *Adjective*.

(4) Asking or Interrogative Pronouns.

172. If the door-bell rings and you want to ask some one the name of the person at the door, how could you ask, supposing you were not allowed to use anything but Nouns and Verbs? You would have to repeat the names of different persons: “Did *John*, or *Thomas*, or *Mary*, etc., ring?” Instead of this, we say, “*Who* rang?”

173. In the same way, if a person has said something, instead of asking, “Did he say *this* or *that*, etc.?” mentioning a number of Nouns or Noun-phrases — we ask, “*What* did he say?”

174. *Who* and *What*, being thus used in the place of Nouns, are called Pronouns; and, as they ask or *interrogate*, they are sometimes called *Interrogative Pronouns* (⁴²).

*** (5) Conjunctive Pronouns.****Asking or Interrogative Pronouns used to join Sentences.**

175. Join together: (1) "*What* have you done?" (2) "Tell me." Answer: (3) "Tell me *what* you have done?"

176. Join together: (1) "*Who* has come?" (2) "I do not know." Answer: (3) "I do not know *who* has come."

177. In these sentences marked (3), *what* and *who* are not, strictly speaking, Interrogative Pronouns, for they do not ask a question. They are, strictly speaking, used *Conjunctively*, that is, they are used to join sentences; but, as they were Interrogative Pronouns before the two sentences were joined, they are sometimes still called Interrogative Pronouns.¹

EXERCISE LXXIV. [SPECIMEN.]

Parse the italicized words in the following Exercise: —

An old farmer, at the point of death, sent for his idle, careless son and said: "I fear that you will soon spend all your money: so I will tell you *what* you must do when you find that you have nothing. There is a treasure in the ground" — here he paused. " *Who* put it there? To *whom* does it belong? In

¹ Elsewhere Dr. Abbott calls them *Conjunctive Pronouns* — a convenient (because distinctive) name.

what part of the farm is it? *What* shall I do to * get * it?" asked the young man. "You will find it, if you dig for it," replied his father; "but I will not tell you *who* put it there, nor where it is." Soon after this, he died. The young man forgot everything about the treasure, till at last he found that he had not a penny in his pocket: "*What* must * I do * now?" said he to himself; and now he remembered that his father had told him *what* he ought * to * do.* So he worked away and dug everywhere about the farm. He never found a treasure of gold, but his digging enriched the ground so that it brought forth a double crop; and that was as good as a treasure. After this he became an industrious man, and prospered as his father had prospered before him.

178. N. B. It is not always easy to say what Noun *what* is put for. It will therefore be enough to remember that *what* is always an Adjective or Pronoun, and therefore, if it has no Noun joined to it, it must be a Pronoun. In such cases you may write down 'Pronoun' at once.

What is a Pronoun, and it joins — (1) "I will tell you." (2) "What must you do?" Therefore it is a Conjunctive Pronoun.

Who is a Pronoun, and it asks a question. Therefore it is an asking, or Interrogative Pronoun.

Whom. The same answer.

What, Pronoun, and it asks a question. Therefore it is an Interrogative Pronoun.

Who is a Pronoun and joins — (1) "I will not

tell you." (2) "Who put it there?" Therefore it is a Conjunctive Pronoun.

What is a Pronoun, and asks a question. Therefore it is an Interrogative Pronoun.

What, Pronoun, and it joins — (1) "His father had told him." (2) "What ought he to do?" Therefore it is a Conjunctive Pronoun.

EXERCISE LXXV.

Parse every word in the above except the words marked *.

For the future, you need not always write down the sentences joined by *who* and *what*; but you must distinguish between *who* and *what* when used Interrogatively, and when used Conjunctively.

EXERCISE LXXVI.

Parse the italicized words in —

The lion and the tiger had joined together for a hunt, and had killed a fine stag; but they could not agree *which* ⁽⁴⁸⁾ should * choose * first. "I am the king of the beasts," said the lion to the tiger; " *Who* are you, in comparison with me?" "I do not care *who* you are," replied the tiger; "I know *what* I mean to * do,* and that is, to * have * the first choice." " *What* do you say?" roared the lion; "If you wish * for a battle, I am ready." At once they flew to battle and fought till the sun went down. By that time, they were quite tired out, and so terribly wounded that *neither* ⁽⁴⁸⁾ could * attack *

the *other* (⁴³). While they lay helplessly on the ground, up crept the fox and the wolf and dragged the stag away.

EXERCISE LXXVII.

Parse all words in the above, except those marked *.

(6) Relative Pronouns.

179. Suppose some boy in a class has broken a blind man's window, and the blind man comes into the class-room to ask for the boy; how can he ask for the boy?

180. He might begin by saying "I want the boy;" but this conveys an incomplete meaning. The teacher would say "which boy?" and the blind man, not having seen the boy cannot point at him and say "that boy." He might add another sentence and say "I want the boy: he broke my window:" but, if he wants to *join these two sentences*, he must say "I want the boy *that* broke my window."

EXERCISE LXXVIII.

Join the following sentences by using *that* instead of the italicized words: —

1. This is the house. — Jack built *the house*.
2. This is the cow. — *The cow* tossed my dog.
3. I want the boy. — *The boy* stole my apples.
4. The boy ran for a policeman. — *The boy* saw the murder.
5. The boy picked all the flowers. — He saw *the flowers* in the garden.
6. Yesterday we played a

game. — We had never played *the game* before.

7. Give me the book. — I asked you for *the book*.

8. What is the name of the place? — You are going to *the place*.

The position of 'that.'

181. Observe in the first sentence, and in some others, of the Exercise above, that the word "that" cannot always be put in the same place as the Noun for which it is substituted. This is because *that* is not only a Pronoun, but also has the *force of a Conjunction*. Consequently it has sometimes to take the *position of a Conjunction*. But in sentence 4 "that" cannot take the position of a Conjunction, because if it came next after 'policeman,' it would seem put for 'policeman,' and not for 'boy.'

Who, whom, which.

182. Note that the Nouns in all the sentences of the last Exercise give an incomplete meaning: 'the house,' 'the cow,' 'the boy,' are all incomplete. For example, after "This is the house," one asks "What house?" Even after "Yesterday we played a game," one naturally asks "What game?"

183. But now join together the following sentences: — (1) "The prize was gained by Thomas." (2) "*He* had twice before been successful." Here the Noun, 'Thomas,' is complete; and the second sentence only tells us something more about 'Thomas.' In such cases *who* is used instead of *that*: "The

prize was gained by Thomas, *who* had been twice before successful."

184. Join together — (1) "The prize was gained by Thomas." (2) "I had beaten Thomas twice before." Answer: "The prize was gained by Thomas, *whom* I had beaten twice before."

185. Join together — (1) "The robber took my purse." (2) "*It* contained ten pounds." Answer: "The robber took my purse, *which* contained ten pounds."

EXERCISE LXXIX.

Join the following sentences by using pronouns *who*, *whom*, *which*: —

1. I heard this story from the captain of the vessel. — *He*, however, was not present when the pirates boarded her. 2. I have been beaten in Arithmetic by Jack. — I have always beaten *him* before. 3. Yesterday we played at foot-ball. — I do not like *it* as well as cricket. 4. I bade farewell to my friends. — I thought I should never see *my friends* again. 5. The barrister persuaded the jury to acquit the prisoner. — He was pleading for *the prisoner*. 6. What is the name of the place? — You are going to *the place*. (4)

'What,' put for 'that which.'

186. Join together the two sentences: (1) "What do you say?" (2) "That is wrong." When joined, the two become, "What you say, that is wrong," or "*what* you say is wrong." Thus *what* is used Con-
junctively, and is the same as *that which*.

187. For example, in Exercise LXXXII, *what*, in “*what* I have said is nothing but the truth,” joins the two sentences, (1) “What have I said?” and (2) “That is nothing but the truth.”

What is the meaning of ‘Relative’?

188. What name are we to give to the Pronouns *that*, *who*, *which*, *what*, when used, as above, Conjunctively? We might call them Conjunctive Pronouns; but, if we did, we should have the same name for *who* in the two sentences —

- (1) Tell me *who* gained the prize.
- (2) The prize is gained by John, *who* gained the prize twice before.

189. Now in (1), *who* is almost an Interrogative word; it does not *carry you back* to any preceding Noun; but *who* in (2) *carries you back* to ‘John.’ Consequently *who* in (2) is said to be a **Relative Pronoun** (*re-*, back; *lative*, carrying).

190. In the same way the Pronouns *that* and *which*, when they *carry you back* to preceding Nouns, are not called Conjunctive (though they join two sentences together), but *Relative Pronouns*. Of course they are Conjunctive as well as Relative; but in practice they are called merely *Relative*.

191. A **Relative Pronoun** is a **Conjunctive Pronoun** used so as to refer to a preceding Noun or Pronoun.

192. Notice that *he*, *it*, etc., are *Relative* (that is, *carry you back*) to preceding Nouns; but they are

not used Conjunctively. Consequently they differ from Relative Pronouns.

Antecedent.

193. The Noun or Pronoun for which a Relative Pronoun is put, is called (since it *comes before* the Relative Pronoun) the **Antecedent** (*ante-*, before; *cedent*, coming).

194. *What* is never used with an Antecedent. But it sometimes *contains* an Antecedent. For example, in “*What* you say is true,” *what* is put for Antecedent ‘that,’ Relative ‘which.’ When *what* is thus put for ‘that which,’ it is said to be Relatively used.

EXERCISE LXXX. [SPECIMEN.]

Parse the italicized words in the following :—

“*Who* has seen the fox?” said the huntsman to the farmer. “I shall be much obliged if you will tell me *who* knows anything about him. I thought he turned up the lane *that* leads to your house.” Now you must * know * the fox had hidden in the hay-loft and the farmer had promised *that* he would not tell *what* had become of him. So when, the huntsman said “*What* has become of the fox?” the farmer made no answer in words; but he winked, and pointed to the hay-loft, *which* was close to the place where they were standing. But the huntsman did not understand *what* he meant, and rode away in haste. As soon as the sound of the hoofs had ceased, up jumped the fox and walked quietly away.

1

“Hulloa!” said the farmer, “*What* are you doing? How comes it *that* you do not stop even * (⁴⁶) to * thank * me, *who* have saved your life? Who will be kind to a beast *that* does not remember kindness? I can’t understand *what* you can * be * thinking of.” “*What* you say,” replied the fox, “seems very reasonable, and I will thank you with all my heart when you explain to me why your kindness made you point * at me in the hay-loft. Till you can explain *what* you mean by *that*, I shall thank the stupidity of the huntsman, and not the kindness of my host.”

195. N.B. — Whenever *who* refers to an Antecedent, and *what* is put for *that which*, they may at once be called (1) Relative; when they ask a question, (2) Interrogative; in other cases, (3) Conjunctive.

196. You need not write down, each time, that *who* and *what* are Pronouns. *Who* is always a Pronoun. And *what* is always a Pronoun, when not an Adjective. You may therefore take for granted their being Pronouns (⁴⁶), and merely write down what sort of Pronouns they are.

Who asks a question. Therefore it is Interrogative.

Who asks no question and has no Antecedent. Therefore it is Conjunctive.

That, put for ‘the *lane*,’ Antecedent, (⁴⁷) and used Conjunctively. Therefore it is a Relative Pronoun.

That joins (1) "The farmer had promised;" (2) "He would not tell." Therefore it is a Conjunction.

What asks no question, and is not put for *that which*. Therefore it is Conjective.

What asks a question. Therefore it is Interrogative.

Which, put for '*now the hay-loft*,' Antecedent and Conjunction. Therefore it is a Relative Pronoun.

What asks no question, and is not put for *that which*. Therefore it is Conjective.

What asks a question. Therefore it is Interrogative.

That joins (1) "How comes it?" (2) you do not stop to thank me." Therefore it is a Conjunction.

Who, put for '*though I*,' Antecedent and Conjunction. Therefore it is Relative.

That, put for '*a beast*,' Antecedent, and used Conjectively. Therefore it is Relative.

What asks no question, and is not put for *that which*. Therefore it is Conjective.

What, put for *that which*. Therefore it is Relative.

What asks no question, and is not put for *that which*. Therefore it is Conjective.

That, put for 'the act of pointing at me.' Therefore it is a Pronoun.

197. N.B. — If you are asked to specify the sentences joined together by *who* and *what*, when used Conjectively but not Relatively, you must remem-

ber that *who* and *what* are *parts* of the second sentence : —

(1) If you will tell me (2) *who* knows anything of him.

(1) He would not tell (2) *what* had become of him.

EXERCISE LXXXI.

Parse all words above not marked *.

EXERCISE LXXXII.

Parse the italicized Pronouns in the following Exercise : —

A crow sat on a bough, with a fine piece of cheese in her mouth, the scent of *which* soon brought the fox to the spot. He tried all the kind words *that* he knew, to * persuade * her to * give * him a morsel of the cheese : but in vain. At last he began to praise her plumage, *which* was very smooth and glossy, and as black as jet. When he saw that she was tickled with this flattery, he added, “ *What* I have said is nothing but ⁽⁴⁸⁾ the truth. The Bird of Paradise, *who* calls herself Queen of the birds, and *whom* all birds admire, is not so beautiful as you are. Ah ! how sorry I am that you do not sing. If you did but ⁽⁴⁹⁾ sing, I do not know a bird *that* would not yield to you.” At these words the crow became so proud that she thought she could sing as well as the nightingale. She opened her beak, and down tumbled the cheese ; *which* the fox snapped up and carried off to his hole.

EXERCISE LXXXIII.

Parse all words above not marked *.

Rule for using 'who' and 'that.'

198. The following may be useful as a rule to tell you when to use *that*, and when to use *who*, *whom*, or *which*:—

199. *That* is used as the Relative Pronoun, except when you can make a pause between the Relative Pronoun and the Antecedent. When you can make a pause, *who* or *which* is used instead of ⁽⁵⁰⁾ *that*. For example:—

(1) I heard it from the boy *that* takes round the beer.

(2) I heard it from the landlord, *who* heard it from the policeman.

In (1) you cannot pause between 'boy' and 'that'; in (2) you can pause between 'landlord' and 'who.'

200. Another difference is that *who* is put for '*and* he,' '*now* he,' etc. *that* is for the Antecedent and some Conjunction. *That* cannot be replaced by two words in this way.

*** 'Which' and 'what' as Adjective-Pronouns.**

* 201. *Which*, *what*, and *their compounds*,¹ whether Interrogatives, Conjunctives, or Relatives, are also used as Adjective-Pronouns. (§ 169.) Thus,

¹ For example, *whichever*, *whatsoever*, etc.

(1) “*Which* (or *what*) book have you?”

(2) “You know *which* (or *what*) book I have.”

(3) “*Which* prediction¹ was carried out to the letter.”

(3) “*What* time I am afraid, I will trust in thee.”

* 202. On the other hand, *who* and *that* (the Relative) are never used as Adjectives, since neither can qualify a Noun. We cannot say “who man” (in any sense) or “*That* time I am afraid, I will trust in thee.” In “That time I am (was) afraid,” *that* is a Demonstrative Pronoun.

* EXERCISE LXXXIV.

Write a number of sentences using correctly and in all possible ways the Pronouns *who*, *which*, *what* and *that* (the Relative).

* EXERCISE LXXXV.

Read in any History of the United States an account of the Battle of Bunker Hill, and then rewrite the story in your own words, using as many and as many kinds of Pronouns as you can, taking great care to use them correctly.

¹ Viz., a prediction just made in a preceding paragraph. (3) is perhaps old-fashioned English, but it certainly occurs in some styles of writing.

CHAPTER X.

USES OF THE VERB.

203. You have been told that the Verb is a *stating word*; and it is quite true that a Verb can be used to make a statement, and that no other word can be thus used.

204. But Verbs may be used in other ways; they may express —

1. *A question*: “Will he come?” “Did he come?”

2. *A command*: “Come!”

3. *A possibility*: that is, something that may possibly take place or might possibly have taken place, but has not taken place: (1) after a Conjunction, “When, if, etc. he *comes*,” “He foolishly thinks that he *knows* everything.” (2) without a Conjunction, “I *would, might, should come, or, have come.*”

Forms of the Verb.

205. Certain forms of the Verb, made by prefixing *to* or by adding *-ing, -ed, -en, (⁶¹)* can be used for (1) Nouns, (2) Adverbs, (3) Adjectives.

	1. NOUN.	2. AD-
<i>To</i>	(I like) to eat	(I come) to see ¹ (I am glad) to see
<i>-ing</i>	(I like) eating (On) seeing (this)	(John), seeing ²
<i>-ed, -en</i>	—	(John), surprised

206. You will hear more about these forms of the Verb hereafter. For the present, although you cannot say with truth that they 'make statements,' yet you may say with truth that they are "stating words" (that is, they *may be used to make statements*). You may add, if you can, how the "stating words" are used, whether to express (1) a question, (2) a command, (3) a possibility; or whether they are used for (1) Nouns, (2) Adverbs, (3) Adjectives.

¹ The forms in this column are said to be used for Adverbs, because they answer the questions *how, when, where, why*. "I come." *Why?* "To see." "You are cruel (*how?*) to frighten her." "He is slow (*how?*) to forgive."

² Forms thus used may be replaced by a Verb and some Conjunction. "Seeing" in this column means "*when, because, while, etc.*, he saw."

-VERB.	3. ADJECTIVE.
<i>i.e.</i> { that I may see. because I see.	—
<i>i.e.</i> { when after } he saw, because (this) though	running (water) (a boy) living ³ (near me)
<i>i.e.</i> { when after } he was because surprised though (at this)	heated (iron) broken (glass)

207. Where a form of the Verb is put for a Con-junctive word and a verb, you should insert the Con-junctive word.

208. Some of the forms beginning with 'to' cannot be explained by you for the present: you must therefore simply call them "stating words."

EXERCISE LXXXVI. [SPECIMEN.]

Parse the italicized words in the following Exercise: —

A greedy quarrelsome terrier, *noticing* that a butcher *was looking* another way, slipped into the

³ "Living" in this column tells you which boy is meant. Therefore it is an Adjective.

shop, and stole a beef-steak. Before he *ate* it, he thought (that) he *would go* back to his kennel. Now *to do* this, he was obliged *to pass* a stream *flowing* not far off. Here, *walking* across a narrow plank that bridged the stream, he saw his own shadow in the water. Thinking (that) it *was* another dog with another beef-steak, he stopped. "Give it to me," he snarled, without *opening* his mouth: for he feared that his beef-steak *might drop*. But the other dog only seemed *to snarl* again. *Irritated* at this, the terrier howled still louder, still *keeping* his mouth shut: "If you *do* not *give* it to me, I will come for it." The dog in the water made no answer, but only seemed to grow more angry. "*Will* you *give* it to me? or do you mean *to fight*? If you do, *come on*;" said the greedy dog, now *losing* all patience as he saw the other dog, *preparing* to spring upon him. "When I once *show* my teeth, you will repent it." On *receiving* no answer, the terrier opened his mouth and leaped into the stream, *dropping* his beef-steak, which was rapidly carried down by the current. Thus the greedy beast, *led* by his greediness, and *trying* to gain what did not belong to him, lost what he already had. If he *had been* content with what he had, he *might have eaten* his beef-steak in peace.

Noticing, a *stating* word, put for "when, or because, he noticed" (Adverb).

Was looking, makes a *statement* about the butcher, Therefore it is a Verb.

Ate, a *stating* word, expresses a *possibility*, follows the Conjunction 'before.'

Would go, a *stating* word, expresses a *possibility*: follows the Conjunction 'that.'

To do, a *stating* word. Answers *why*? (Adverb).

To pass, a *stating* word (you cannot explain this at present).

Flowing, a *stating* word, put for 'that flowed' (Adjective).

Walking, a *stating* word, put for 'while he walked' (Adverb).

Was, a *stating* word, follows the Conjunction 'that.'

Opening, a *stating* word (Noun).

Might drop, a *stating* word; expresses a *possibility*, follows the Conjunction 'that.'

To snarl, a *stating* word.

Irritated, a *stating* word, put for '*As, because* he was irritated' (Adverb).

Keeping, a *stating* word, put for '*Though, while* he kept' (Adverb).

Do . . . give, a *stating* word, expresses a *possibility*, follows 'if.'

Will . . . give, a *stating* word, asks a *question*.

To fight, a *stating* word, Noun, like 'fighting.'

Come on, a *stating* word, expresses a *command*.

Losing, a *stating* word, put for '*while or because* he lost' (Adverb).

Preparing, a *stating* word, put for "*while* he was preparing" (Adverb).

Show, a *stating* word, expresses a *possibility*, follows 'when.'

Receiving, a *stating* word (Noun).

Dropping, a *stating* word, put for 'while he dropped' (Adverb).

Led, a *stating* word, put for 'since, because he was led' (Adverb).

Trying, a *stating* word, put for 'since because he tried' (Adverb).

Had been and *might have been*, *stating* words; both express *possibility*; *had been* follows 'if.'

EXERCISE LXXXVII.

Parse the italicized words in —

Two men set out on a journey; one was blind, the other was lame. If they *had known* that they *were* both *going* the same way, each *might have helped* the other; but they *did* not *know* this; so each walked on by himself. Very soon the blind man overtook the lame man and passed him because he could walk much more quickly. But presently he came to a stream *flowing* across the road, and *bridged* by nothing but a narrow plank. Here, *attempting* to cross, he fell in. On *finding* his clothes drenched with water, he sat down *to dry* them. Meantime, the lame man passed him, *hobbling* along with great difficulty and *obliged* to stop *to rest* almost every minute. In this foolish way they *would have* pursued their journey, but, *passing* together through the next village, they met a little boy, who looked up at them and said, "Why *do* they *travel* in this foolish way? Surely they *would be* more comfortable if the lame man *rode* on the

blind man. Then the lame man *might guide* and the blind *might carry*." On *hearing* this, the blind man said at once, "That is a good thought. What *say* you? *I should like to try* the experiment if you *did not object*." "By all means," answered the other, "I shall be most happy *to try* it." So up he jumped, and in this way they pursued their journey, and finished it in half (of) the time that it *would* else *have taken*.

EXERCISE LXXXVIII. (⁶²)

Parse all the words in the two last Exercises.

* EXERCISE LXXXIX.

Write an account of the air-pump, (after reading one in your Philosophy,) using as many and as many kinds of verb-forms as you can. Be careful that each is used correctly.



NOTES.

Page 3. (1) The Romans, from whom our ancestors learned Grammar, used to call these words *Nomina* (which meant *names*). Compare the word to *nominate*, i. e. to *name*. From them (through the French) we have borrowed the word, but we have altered it to *Nouns*.

Page 4. (2) Or Pronoun, which is a word used instead of a Noun. (See page 8.)

Page 7. (3) "Of any kind," i. e. not only of persons and places, but of actions, feelings, etc.

The pupils should be encouraged to enlarge their vocabulary by "making Nouns" freely, before passing on to the next chapter. The exercise of stating the names of the qualities of objects is particularly valuable.

Page 9. (4) *The rare use of the Reflexives without their simpler Pronouns, as in "Myself am lord," is really no exception, or (at worst) only an apparent one: the simpler Pronoun is always understood.

*Reflexives are used (1) for *emphasis*, "I bade you do it yourself," (2) to denote that the object of a verb is the same person as its subject, "He struck himself."

Page 13. (5) *His, her, my*, etc. are sometimes called Pronouns, because they are put for Nouns. But they are not put for Nouns exactly; they are put for a sort of Noun-Adjective made out of a Noun. "John" is a Noun, and "he," when put for "John," is a Pronoun; but "John's" is a sort of Noun-Adjective, and "his," being put for "John's" is called an Adjective. It might be called a Pronoun-Adjective, * or (as is more common, perhaps,) an Adjective-Pronoun.

*By the same sort of reasoning, however, *his*, etc. can be shown to be true Pronouns. *John's* is simply a case a particular form) of *John*. Hence, *his*, which is put for *John's*, is as truly a Pronoun, as is *he* which is put for *John*.

If *his*, *her*, *my*, etc. were formed (as the Nouns are) by adding 's: *he's*, *she's*, *I's* *we's*, etc., they might then be called Possessive forms of the Pronoun. But, as it is not easy to recognize the connection between the Pronouns and their Possessive forms, the latter are called Adjectives.

* Yet *his*, *her*, *my*, etc. are formed (as are the Nouns) by adding inflectional letters. (See Note *43.) Except *his*, *its*, and *whose*, however, they have lost their true pronominal force, being never used without a following Noun. Hence, they are most properly treated as Adjectives. (See Chap. IX.)

Page 14. (6) The word *Adjective* is something like *adjacent*, which means "lying close to." For instance, the Isle of Wight is said to be *adjacent* to England. In the same way the words spoken of in this chapter are *adjacent* or *Adjective* to the Noun.

Page 15. (7) *A* or *an* used once to be spelt *ane*. It is the same word as *one*. People used once to say "*ane* book," or "*an* book." Now, we only use *an* before a vowel, e. g. "*an* apple."

Page 15. (8) *The same is true of Numerals (or Numeral Adjectives). A special objection to the name Article is urged by Dr. Abbott, Glossary, s. v.

Page 17. (9) "Son" must be supplied after "second," "third," etc.

Page 18. (10) Notice that "winter," which is generally a Noun, is here an Adjective. Almost every Noun can be used as an Adjective, especially to denote the material of which anything is made; "a *paper* box," "an *ivory* pen-holder."

Page 18. (11) These classes of Adjectives may be named (1) *Distinguishing*, (2) *Possessive*, (3) Adjectives of *Quality* or *Condition*, (4) *Ordinal*, (5) Adjectives of *Number* and *Amount*, that is, Adjectives of *Quantity*. Numbers are sometimes called *Numeral* Adjectives.

Page 24. (12) "May be." Some words, such as *grew*, *became*, cannot come under any of these three heads, but must simply be called *stating* words.

Page 25. (13) It *may* be a Verb. But in "we had some pleasant *rides* together," it is a Noun: for it is a name, and not a *stating* word.

Page 27 (*14) The same Verb, however, may be at one time *Transitive*, at another time *Intransitive*. The distinction is not absolute.

Page 27 (*¹⁵) Full definitions may be found in *How to Parse*, §§ 59-62.

Page 27 (*¹⁶) *How to Parse*, chap. IV.

Page 30. (¹⁴) This and many other sentences should be parsed orally, before the pupil begins to write a single Exercise.

Page 38. (¹⁵) The question *how*? includes *how often*? *how long*? *how much*?

Page 39. (¹⁶) An Adverb is rarely used with a Noun. "*Even* the soldiers trembled." Really this means "*Even* such brave people as the soldiers, trembled:" so that the Adverb is perhaps really used with an Adjective understood.

Page 39. (¹⁷) Note that *much* is used with Verbs, *very* with Adjectives. "I shall be *very* happy," but "I was *much* pleased." But we say "*much* happier."

Page 44. (¹⁸) These Adverbs are sometimes called Adverbs of *Emphasis*.

Page 45. (¹⁹) Sometimes called *Asking* or *Interrogative* Adverbs.

Page 47. (²⁰) 'Yes' and 'No' are not Adverbs. They are "words put for sentences," and may be called by this name in parsing. For example, in answer to "Will you come?" 'yes' means "I will come;" 'no' means "I will not come."

Page 51. (²¹) The teacher places the ruler *above* his head, and calls out "head." The class, or the pupil whose turn it is, calls out "above." Then he places it *by*, or *at*, or *near* his side, and calls out "side:" and the class answers accordingly.

Page 51. (²²) *Close* is strictly an Adjective, used also as an Adverb, and here forming part of a Compound Preposition, *close to*.

Page 51. (²³) *Near*, *next*, are Adjectives, used also as Adverbs and as Prepositions.

Page 51. (²⁴) *Without* is now generally used in the sense of 'deprived of.'

Page 54. (²⁵) The two following Prepositions require special notice:—*But* was once spelt *bout*, or *be-out* (like the other Prepositions *be-side*, *be-fore*, *be-tween*), and meant "without," 'leaving out,' or 'excepting.' So, "punish any one *but* him," means "punish any one *leaving out*, or *excepting* him."

Till in Old English was the same as *to*. So "wait *till* to-morrow" means "wait *to* to-morrow."

Page 57. (²⁶*) The following definition has been given:—

"The Preposition is a word that shows the relation of a Noun or Pronoun to some other word in the sentence." But see Preface, p. xii.

Note that with the Relative Pronoun *that*, the Preposition always follows the Pronoun: "the boy *that* I spoke to."

Page 69. ⁽²⁶⁾ *As* in "*as* much," "*as* soon," "*as* good," etc., is an Adverb answering to the question *how*? "*how* much?" "*how* soon?" "*how* good?" etc. In early English *so* was used where we now use *as*. "I am *so* good *as* he is."

Page 70. ⁽²⁷⁾ The Exercise of specifying the Sentences joined by Conjunctions is very difficult for young pupils, who will require a good deal of oral help and guidance from the teacher before they can be expected to do the task by themselves. It will be found, however, that Exercise LXIII. is much easier than the Specimen Exercise.

Page 75. ⁽²⁸⁾ The full explanation of Sentence (2) is this:—

Than once had a meaning very much like *in what degree, how*. So, sentence (2) meant "in *whatever* degree (*than*) apples are good, *i.e.* *however* good apples are, pears are better."

Page 75. ⁽²⁹⁾ The explanation of Sentence (3) is this:—

As meant "*in which, or in what way, or degree,*" and also "*in that degree.*" Hence the Sentence was originally, "*as* (in what degree) mutton is good, beef is *as* (in that degree) good," *i.e.* "as mutton is good, beef is as good," or, by inversion, "beef is as good as mutton (is good)."

Page 75. ⁽³⁰⁾ "Two *and* two make four" cannot be said to be a compression of "two make four" and "two make four." Here "two and two" seems to be the same as "two *with* two," or "added to two." (See the use of *but*, Note ³⁷.)

Page 76. ⁽³¹⁾ This is a short way of saying "*Both* (*i.e.* not only) the city was taken *and* the city was destroyed."

Page 77. ⁽³²⁾ *Awake*, like *asleep* (see p. 59) is an Adverb, formed by compressing the Adverbial Phrase *in* or *on* *wake*.

Page 77. ⁽³³⁾ *Conquering* is a Noun, coming after the Preposition *but*, which means *except*.

Page 79. ⁽³⁴⁾ *Whether* was once, but is not now, used Interrogatively.

Page 81. ⁽³⁵⁾ We can say "*only* ten, nine, eight days ago," just as we say "*precisely, just, ten* days ago." (See p. 43.) Hence *only* is here an Adverb, connected with *last*, and answering the question "How far is this true?"

Page 83. (³⁶) This is a short way of saying "I shall have a number of chickens, between sixty and seventy."

Page 85. (³⁶) Dr. Abbott's heading was "Adjectives used as Pronouns"; but the words intended are (with a few exceptions) more properly Pronouns used as Adjectives. (See Note ^{*41}.) An Adjective is, in truth, simply a *mode* of either a Noun or a Pronoun.

Page 86. (³⁷) *But* here joins two Adjectives, "kind" and "foolish."

Page 87. (³⁸) *Too* joins the same sentences as *but*. "But . . . too" is something like *but also*. (See p. 76.)

Page 89. (³⁹) *Ones* is put for "creatures" or "children." So it is in the Bible, "your wives and your little *ones*." Therefore it is a Pronoun.

Page 89. (⁴⁰) *Like* is an incomplete Adjective. It *begins to tell you of what sort* the "eyes" are.

Page 89. (⁴¹) *This* is put for "my not having known them," i.e. "my ignorance."

Page 90. (^{*41}) The whole truth is that all Pronouns, like all Nouns, (see Note ¹⁰), have naturally two uses, — (1) the *substantive*, (2) the *adjective*. Some of them, it is true, have lost one part or the other of this double function; but others have kept both parts. These, in use (1), are properly Adjective-Pronouns; in use (2), properly Pronominal Adjectives. Besides this, a few Adjectives are used as Pronouns.

Page 90. (^{*42}) The groups indicated by the semicolons are named (respectively) *Quantitatives*, *Distributives*, and *Comparatives*.

Page 90. (^{*43}) *Whose* is really a case of *who* and *which*, but for convenience' sake may be classed as a *Possessive*.

Page 90. (^{*44}) The substantive use of *his* is unquestionable, as in "Is this book William's?" "No, the one you have is *his*"; but *its* and *whose* are less common as Pronouns. Shakspeare could write, "The last day made former wonders *it's*," and we, perhaps, still say, "The man *whose* it is (that is, to *whom* it belongs) has come"; but neither word is familiarly so used now.

Page 90. (^{*45}) Historically, *my* and *thy* are simply "decayed" forms of *mine* and *thine*, as *a* is a decayed form of *an*. The *n* of *mine* and *thine*, and the *r* of *our*, *your*, *her*, and *their* are possessive case-endings; and the *s* of *his*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, and

theirs is the same *s* (minus its apostrophe) as occurs in *John's*. It was added to the last four Pronouns in ignorance of the inflectional character of the *r*.

* Neither class of Possessives, though often called Adjective-Pronouns, is entitled to the name: (1) is never pronominal, (2) never adjectival, in use.

* *Mine* and *thine*, however, were once Adjectives, as well as Pronouns; as in "*Mine* house," "*thine* own eye."

Page 91. (42) *Which*, when used Interrogatively, is generally used as an Adjective rather than as a Pronoun. But it is sometimes used by itself where you can scarcely supply the Noun from the sentence, e.g. "You mentioned John and Thomas. *Which* of them did you see?" Here, according to our rule (see p. 85), *which* must be a Pronoun.

Pages 94, 95. (43) *Which*, *neither*, and *other*, are Pronouns, for you cannot supply Nouns after them, from the sentence.

Page 97. (44) Note that *whom* and *which* can always be used as Conjunctive Pronouns with Prepositions, even when the Antecedent is incomplete.

Page 100. (45) *Even* (see Note 16) is connected with some word to be supplied: "*even* for so natural a thing as thanking me." "To thank" is the same as "for thanking."

Page 100. (46) Less advanced pupils may say "*Who* is put for 'what person,' *what* is put for 'what thing:' therefore they are Pronouns," before they describe what sort of Pronouns they are. But you cannot always fairly say that *what* is put for *what thing*, e.g. in "*What* did he say?" "*What* do you think?"

Page 100. (47) If *that* had been put for "the lane," and not used *Conjunctively*, *that* would not have been a Relative Pronoun.

Page 102. (48) *But* is here a Preposition, meaning *except*. (See Note 25.)

Page 102. (49) *But* here means *only*, and is an Adverb.

Page 103. (50) For older pupils this rule might be expressed less mechanically, thus:—

(1) *That* introduces something necessary to complete the meaning of the Antecedent.

(2) *Who*, or *which*, introduces a new fact about the Antecedent.

Page 105. (51) Or other changes, e.g. *teach*, *taught*; *break*, *broken*.

Page 111. ⁽⁶²⁾ The pupil is now prepared to tell the Parts of Speech in easy narrative, with the exception of (a) the Infinitives dependent on Auxiliary Verbs when used Indicatively; (b) *it* and *there* when used redundantly.

(a) As regards Auxiliaries, the pupil need not be expected for the present to distinguish them from their dependent Infinitives. For example, in parsing "the baby *could* just *walk*, or, *must* not *walk*," he may say "*could walk*, and *must walk*" state what the baby *could* do, or *must* (not) do: therefore they are Verbs.

(b) As regards *it* and *there* in (1) "*it* is sometimes right to be angry," (2) "*there* was once a great king," the pupil may be taught that these sentences have the same meaning as (1) "to be angry is sometimes right," (2) "a great king once was." But, as these sentences (especially the last) sound badly, *it* and *there* are inserted to *prepare* the way for what follows, and may be called a *Preparatory* Pronoun and Adverb respectively.

How to Tell the

Write the words in a column on the left hand ;
then find out what each word *does*. After that,

Word.	What the word does.	What Part of Speech the word is.
1.	Is a <i>Name</i> .	Therefore it is a <i>Noun</i> .
2.	Is <i>put</i> for a Noun.	Therefore it is a <i>Pronoun</i> .
3.	Can come before a Noun ; answers the question (1) <i>which</i> ? (2) <i>whose</i> ? (3) <i>of what sort</i> ? or in <i>what condition</i> ? (4) <i>in what order</i> ? (5) <i>how many</i> ? or <i>how much</i> ?	Therefore it is an <i>Adjective</i> .
4.	Makes a ¹ <i>statement</i> about something. 1. What anything <i>does</i> . 2. What <i>is done</i> to anything. 3. In what condition anything <i>is</i> .	Therefore it is a <i>Verb</i> .

Tests.

If you are in doubt what Part of Speech a word is, the following Tests will sometimes be useful to you : —

1. *Nouns and Pronouns*. — If a word (sometimes with ‘a’ or ‘the’ before it) can come after ‘I like,’ or ‘I dislike,’ in answer to the question, “What do you like?” it is a Noun or Pronoun.

2. *Adjectives*. — If a word can ² come between *a*

¹ Or “may be used to make a statement.” (See page 106.)

² There are very few Adjectives that cannot be thus used. The

Parts of Speech.

you may write down what Part of Speech each word is.

Word.	What the word does.	What Part of Speech the word is.
5.	Answers the question :— (1) <i>how?</i> (2) <i>when?</i> (3) <i>where?</i> or (4) <i>how far is this true?</i>	Therefore it is an <i>Adverb</i> .
6.	Can <i>come before</i> a Noun and, with the Noun, makes up (1) an Adjective or (2) Adverb. (See also Test 4 below.)	Therefore it is a <i>Preposition</i> .
7.	<i>Joins</i> two Sentences.	Therefore it is a <i>Conjunction</i> .
8.	Is <i>put for a Noun</i> , joins two Sentences, <i>refers</i> to an Ante- cedent.	Therefore it is a <i>Relative Pro-</i> <i>noun</i> .

or *the* and a Noun, it is an Adjective: “a *good* boy,” “the *six* boys.”

3. *A Verb*. — If a word can take ‘I,’ ‘you,’ or ‘he,’ before it, and make sense, it is a Verb.

4. *A Preposition*. — If a word can take ‘them’ after it, and not ‘he,’ ‘you,’ or ‘I,’ before it, it is a Preposition.

following are the principal exceptions: — (1) The Adjectives answering to the question *whose?* (5) viz. *my, your, our*, etc.: (2) some Adjectives answering to the question *how many?* viz. *none, no, both, all, any, some, many, more, most, another, several, each, every, either, neither*.

How to Tell the

Write the words in a column on the left hand; then find out what each word *does*. After that,

Word.	What the word does.	What Part of Speech the word is.
1.	Is a <i>Name</i> .	Therefore it is a <i>Noun</i> .
2.	Is <i>put</i> for a Noun.	Therefore it is a <i>Pronoun</i> .
3.	Can come before a Noun; answers the question (1) <i>which</i> ? (2) <i>whose</i> ? (3) <i>of what sort</i> ? or in <i>what condition</i> ? (4) <i>in what order</i> ? (5) <i>how many</i> ? or <i>how much</i> ?	Therefore it is an <i>Adjective</i> .
4.	Makes a ¹ <i>statement</i> about something. 1. What <i>anything does</i> . 2. What <i>is done</i> to anything. 3. In what condition <i>anything is</i> .	Therefore it is a <i>Verb</i> .

Tests.

If you are in doubt what Part of Speech a word is, the following Tests will sometimes be useful to you:—

1. *Nouns and Pronouns*. — If a word (sometimes with ‘a’ or ‘the’ before it) can come after ‘I like,’ or ‘I dislike,’ in answer to the question, “What do you like?” it is a Noun or Pronoun.

2. *Adjectives*. — If a word can² come between *a*

¹ Or “may be used to make a statement.” (See page 106.)

² There are very few Adjectives that cannot be thus used. The

Parts of Speech.

you may write down what Part of Speech each word is.

Word.	What the word does.	What Part of Speech the word is.
5.	Answers the question :— (1) <i>how?</i> (2) <i>when?</i> (3) <i>where?</i> or (4) <i>how far is this true?</i>	Therefore it is an <i>Adverb</i> .
6.	Can <i>come before</i> a Noun and, with the Noun, makes up (1) an Adjective or (2) Adverb. (See also Test 4 below.)	Therefore it is a <i>Preposition</i> .
7.	<i>Joins</i> two Sentences.	Therefore it is a <i>Conjunction</i> .
8.	Is <i>put for a Noun</i> , joins two Sentences, <i>refers</i> to an Ante- cedent.	Therefore it is a <i>Relative Pro-</i> <i>noun</i> .

or *the* and a Noun, it is an Adjective: “a *good* boy,” “the *six* boys.”

3. *A Verb*. — If a word can take ‘I,’ ‘you,’ or ‘he,’ before it, and make sense, it is a Verb.

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following are the principal exceptions: — (1) The Adjectives answering to the question *whose?* (5) viz. *my, your, our*, etc.: (2) some Adjectives answering to the question *how many?* viz. *none, no, both, all, any, some, many, more, most, another, several, each, every, either, neither*.

APPENDIX.



HINTS ON SPELLING.

ENGLISH Spelling is so irregular that no systematic rules can be laid down for it. The knowledge of the derivation of a word is often a help towards the spelling of it ; but this is not always the case. The best way to spell well is to read often, and so to become familiar with words. Thus misspelt words will be detected by their *strange look*.

Change of Letters.—The following principle will explain many of the variations in the spelling of words :—

Rule.— *A letter is often changed or doubled in passing from one form of a word to another, in order to preserve the original sound.*

I. — y. For example, *-y* final preceded by a consonant, as in “happy,” is changed into *i* upon the addition of *-er*, *-est*, *-al*, *-ed*, *-ous*, or of any other affix (except *-ing*) beginning with a vowel. Otherwise the sound of the word might be altered, *e. g.*, “happ-*yer*,” “gidd-*yest*.” Hence —

Defy, defi-ance; easy, easi-est; remedy, remedi-al, remedi-ed; merry, merri-er; country, countri-es.

In many of these words the original termination was *-ie*, which indeed was the regular English equivalent of the French *-é* :

ctie; nobilitie; felicitie; clergie.

This rule is also extended to *-y* before other affixes, *viz.*, *-ment*, *-ly*, *-ful* :—

Necessari-ly; greed-i-ness; beauti-ful.

II. — *y*. When (1) the affix is *-ing*, or (2) *-y* is already preceded by a vowel, or (3) *-y* terminates a monosyllable, — in all these cases *-y* remains generally unchanged: —

- (1) Pity-*ing* ("pitüng"); (2) enjoy-ment, valleys; (3) dry-ness.

The reasons are (1) the desire to avoid *ü*; in (2) and (3) *because the sound is not altered by the retention of -y*.

Exceptions. — Nevertheless, out of conformity to other words —

"Dry" makes "dri-er," "dri-est;" "try," "tri-al," "tri-er;" "day," "dai-ly;" "pay," "pai-d;" "fly," "fli-es;" "lay," "lai-d," "lay" (Past Tense of "lie"), "lai-n;" "say," "sai-d;" "gay," "gai-ly," "gai-ety."¹

N.B. Pite-ous, plente-ous, from "pity," "plenty."

III. When a word ends in *-ie*, the juxtaposition of *-iei* in the Active Participle is avoided by changing *-ie* into *-y*: —

Die, dy-ing; lie, ly-ing, but li-ar.

Omission of Letters. — Rule. *-e final is (IV.) dropped before an affix beginning with a vowel; but (V.) retained before an affix beginning with a consonant.*

IV. Instances of Rule IV. are —

Grieve, griev-*ance*; fame, fam-*ous*; sense, sens-*ible*; judge, judg-*ing*; please, pleas-*ure*; remove, remov-*able*; blame, blam-*ing*; sphere, spher-*ical*.

Exceptions to IV. — (a) *C* and *g*, though soft (e. g. in "service," "outrage") must necessarily become hard if followed by an affix beginning with *a*, *o*, or *u*. To prevent (1) this and (2) other changes of sound, final *-e* is sometimes retained: —

- (1) Service, service-*able*; outrage, outrage-*ous*.
(2) Unsale-*able*.

Exceptions to IV. — (b) When *-e* is preceded by *-i*, *-o*, *-e*, *-y*, it is often retained before *-ing*, *-able*. This is in

¹ * But *gayly*, *gayety* — Webster, Worcester, Richardson. *Gaily* and *gaiety*, older forms most probably due to French *gai*, *gaieté*, seem still to be the best usage in England, and are not unusual in America.

order to preserve the sound of the word, which might otherwise be changed : —

Shoe-*ing* (not "shoing"); agree-*able* (not "agreea-ble").

The *-e* is also retained in the Active Participles "dye-*ing*," "sing-*ing*," "swinge-*ing*," in order to distinguish them from "dy-*ing*," "sing-*ing*," and "swing-*ing*."

Exceptions to V. : —

Abridg-ment, acknowledg-ment, argu-ment, aw-ful, du-ly, judg-ment, tru-ly, whol-ly.

Rule VI. — *A monosyllable ending in -ll (1) when followed by an affix beginning with a consonant, or (2) when itself used as an affix, generally drops one -l : —*

Al-most, al-though, al-ready, al-beit, al-mighty, al-so, al-together, al-ways, bel-fry, ful-fil,¹ wel-fare, el-bow, ful-ly, drol-ly, ful-ness, re-cal.¹

This is the shape in which Rule VI. suggests itself to us in modern times. But, in reality, *al, wel, el*, are the old English forms, and are retained in the modern English compounds "*al-though*," "*wel-fare*," "*el-bow*."

In "*re-cal*,"¹ "*ful-fil*,"¹ the *l* was probably dropped to assimilate the spelling to that of the common words "*al-though*," "*with-al*," &c.

"*Bel-fry*" is not in reality derived from "bell." See *Etymological Dictionary*.

In several words, the syllable in *-ll* has not coalesced with the other syllable so completely as to be regarded as an affix or prefix. It is therefore treated as a separate word, and retains *-ll*. Hence —

Under-*sell* (and several words ending in *-ness*), *tall-ness, small-ness, ill-ness, shrill-ness, droll-ness, fare-well, un-well, be-fall, down-fall, cat-call*.

Doubling Letters. — Rule VII.

If the termination of a word is a consonant preceded by a vowel (e. g., "-it"), then on receiving an affix beginning

¹ * In America, the best usage favors *-ll* at the end of such compounds; e. g., *fulfill, recall*.

with a vowel (e. g. “-ing”), the final consonant in the word is doubled (e. g. “-itting”), provided that the word is a monosyllable (e. g. “sit”), or a polysyllable accented on the last syllable (e. g. “remit”).

This is in order to preserve the sound. If the consonant were not doubled, “hop-ping” would be confused with “hop-ing”:—

(1) Hop, hop-ping; thin, thin-ner; fat, fat-test.

ACCENT ON THE LAST.

forget-ting, remit-ting
infer-ring, refer-ring
occur-ring, acquit-ting

ACCENT NOT ON THE LAST

bracket-ing, debit-ing
cover-ing, offer-ing
sever-ing, credit-ing

Exceptions to VII. — Words ending in *-l*, although not accented on the last syllable, nevertheless double *-l*: —

Travel-ling, -ler; counsel-ling, -lor; revel-ling, -ler; marvel-ling, -lous; rival-ling; level-led; untrammel-led. Also, worship-ping.¹

Unparallel-ed is an exception.²

EXERCISES.

I. and II. Add as many as possible of the affixes *-al*, *-ed*, *-er*, *-s*, *-ly*, *-ness*, *-ous*, *-s*, to the following words: —

Lonely, employ, gaudy, daisy, decay, steady, accompany, enjoy, effigy, silly, occupy, busy, giddy, jelly, colloquy, chimney, ready, journey, shabby, annoy, prophesy, felony, try, lovely, efficacy, convey, lofty, supply, dismay, defy, gay, vary, penury, stately, day, accompany, pity, marry, plenty, continue.

IV. and V. Add as many as possible of the affixes *-able*, *-ing*, *-ly*, *-ment*, *-ous*, *-er*, *-y*, to the following words: —

Love, peace, move, blame, marriage, whole, sole, decree, ease, feeble, advantage, true, spice, village, due, charge, trouble, trace, pledge, judge, guarantee, manage, abridge, disagree, excuse.

¹ * And a few more; e. g., *bias*, *kidnap*. These words were once, perhaps, accented on the last syllable.

² Probably owing to the fact that “unparalleled” is of Greek derivation; containing the Greek long *ε*, it may have been once pronounced “unparallel-*ēd*,” and spelt accordingly.

VII. Add *-ing*, *-ence*, *-er*, *-ous* (where possible), to —

Control, bargain, recal,¹ peril, benefit, admit, ballot, danger, infer, pencil, debit, acquit, abhor, glutton, begin, poison, suffer, traitor, gambol, extol, rebel, travel, compel, level, worship, cancel, model, sever, equip, allot, riot, murder, befit, ruin, sin.

Reasons for Apparent Irregularities.

I. *-eive*, *-ieve*. — It is sometimes difficult to decide, in such words as “receive,” “believe,” etc., whether the *e* or *i* should come first; but the difficulty will vanish if it is borne in mind that (except after *c*) *i* comes first: —

- (1) Believe, reprieve, retrieve, grieve, mischief, mischievous.
- (2) Deceive, deceit, conceive, conceit, receive, receipt.

The reason for the exceptional spelling of *-ceive*, is that this termination represents the Latin *cap-*, French *cev-*; whereas *-ie* is the non-Latin termination.

II. *-eed*, *-ede*. — A few compounds from the Latin *ced-* were introduced early and received the English spelling: —

Succeed, proceed, exceed.

These words are very common in Shakespeare's plays. Other compounds were not introduced till afterwards, when it was no longer the custom to Anglicize the spelling of foreign words. Hence the Latin or French spelling is retained in —

Accede, concede, precede, recede.

These four are not found in Shakespeare's plays.²

The English spelling also accounts for the double *e* in “agreeable” (Fr. *agréable*), “degree” (Fr. *degré*).

III. *-or*, *-our*, *-er*. — These terminations are from different sources: *-or* is Latin; *-our* is Latin though French; *-er* is English. Hence, —

¹ * See Note ¹, page 125.

² “Preceding” is used once as an Adjective, and once as a Participle; in the latter case it is spelt “preceeding.”

Latin: (1) Actor, collector, demonstrator.
 French: (2) Colour, honour, odour.¹
 English: (3) Painter, player.

Note that, whenever a Noun is formed according to English and not according to Latin rules, then, though the Verb be of Latin or French-Latin origin, the termination is generally *-er*; e. g. "defender," "extinguish-er" (the Latin Nouns would be *defens-or*, *extinct-or*); "vict-or," but "vanquish-er."

There is a tendency, especially in advertisements, to save space by omitting the French *-u*. "Governor" (for "governour") is now recognized as correct, and "honor" is aspiring to correctness.²

IV. Latin: *-(a)ble, -ible*. — Strictly speaking, *-ble*, and not *-able*, is the Latin termination, *a* being part of the Root. Thus the Latin word was *penetra-*, and the termination *-ble*. In the same way, in a few cases, but not many, *i* is part of the Root, and *-ble* is the termination: —

- (1) Penetra-ble, indisputa-ble, delecta-ble, indispensa-ble, inconsola-ble, indomita-ble, insupera-ble, demonstra-ble.
- (2) Audi-ble, edi-ble, incorrupt-ible, indigest-ible, indestruct-ible, reprehens-ible, incomprehens-ible, incompress-ible.

V. English: *-able*. — This termination is used with English Verbs, e. g. "lovable," and also with many Latin Verbs (even where the root does not end in *-a*), *provided that the Verb is so common as to be regarded as English*: —

Latin words with English termination

Indefinable, inextinguishable, redeemable, perishable, attributable, disposable.

VI. (1) *-se*, (2) *ce*. — Distinguish between (1) the termination of the *Verb* in *-se* and (2) the termination of the *Noun* in *-ce*: —

- (1) Advise, license, practise, devise, prize. (Verbs.)
- (2) Advice, licence, practice, device, price. (Nouns.)

¹ * In America (and, to some extent, in England) the *u* is now omitted from words of this class. (See below.)

² * The reason for this omission is, however, a better one than the desire to save space. Our language has never been *consistent* in spelling words of this class: and the *u*, though etymologically important, is really a hindrance to correct spelling.

Spelling List.

The following words should be noted. They may be combined in sentences for dictation, or may be set by the pupils to one another. They are purposely unarranged:—

Niece, awkward, seize, courageous, ceiling, league, colonel, leisure, almond, treasure, intrigue, kernel, clothing, grandeur, ghastly, heifer, punishment, intelligence, villains, gardener, realm, principal, mountainous, principle, friar, poniard, sergeant, abhorrent, pony, necessarily, unparalleled, quarrelling, ecstasy, cavilling, kidnapping, limiting, dignitary, practice (Noun), reprieve, continually, character, potato, pedlar,¹ annually, anomaly, business, mischievous, indictment, onions, cabbages, vengeance, deign (Verb), embarrassment, anonymous, committee, couple, camphor, giraffe, syrup, guerilla, mosquito, verandah,² azure, hammock, phosphorus, apartment, annalist, apparition, license (Verb), recede, decalogue, etymology, apparel, courteous, succeed, furlough, miscellany, scythe, morocco, chocolate, cemetery, proceed, accessory, bouquet, paroquet, exchequer, banquet, masquerade, accede, gelatine, obsequies, gazette, effigies, etiquette, balloon, encyclopædia, leopard, gudgeon, counterfeit, pigeon, menagerie, besiege, bereave, concede, inveigle, obeisance, complaisant, bivouac, neighbor, pleurisy, journeys, quarantine, unique, cylinder, symptom, hydrophobia, rubies, valleys, mimicking, noticeable, milliner, sepulchre, available, sedentary, peremptory, pelisse, analyst, symmetry, guinea, specimen, simile, metaphor.

¹ * Or *pedler* or *peddler*.

² * Better, *veranda*.

ETYMOLOGICAL GLOSSARY

OF

GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

Few of the terms explained below are used by the author, and many of them are misused or badly constructed, *e. g.* "article," "accusative." But, as they are used in many grammatical treatises, it has been thought desirable to explain them, especially as an explanation is sometimes the best means of proving them to be superfluous or erroneous, when applied to English Grammar.

The References, when not otherwise stated, are to the *Paragraphs* in *How to Parse*.

The meaning given opposite to each word is the *Etymological* meaning. For a fuller or more accurate definition, the pupil is referred to the Paragraph mentioned in each case.

Ablative (Case) [L. *ab*, "from;" *latus*, "carried"].

The name for a Latin case, denoting, among other things, *ablation*, or *carrying away from*.

Absolute (Construction) [L. *ab*, "from;" *solut*-, "loosed"].

A construction in which a Noun, Participle, etc., is used apart, *i. e.* *loosed from*, its ordinary Grammatical adjuncts (Par. 135).

Abstract (Noun) [L. *abs*, "from;" *tract*-, "drawn"].

The name of an *abstraction*, *i. e.* of something considered by itself, apart from (*drawn away from*) the circumstances in which it exists.

Accent [L. *ad*, "to;" *cantus*, "song"]. Perhaps originally a *sing-song*, or modulation of the voice, added to a syllable.

Now used of stress laid on a syllable.

Accidence [L. *accident* — "be-fall"]. That part of grammar which treats of the changes that befall words.¹

Accusative (Case).² The Latin name for the Direct Objective Inflection. Possibly the Romans regarded the object as being in front of the agent, like an *accused* person confronted with the prosecutor.

Active (Voice). The form of a Verb that usually denotes *acting* or *doing*.

Adjective [L. *ad*, "to;" *jact*, "cast or put"]. A word *put to* a Noun.

Aphæresis [Gr. *ap*, "from;" *hairesis*, "taking"]. *Taking* a letter or syllable *from* the beginning of a word.

¹ Quintilian, l. 5, 41: "frequentissime in verbo, quia plurima huic accidunt."

² Probably a Latin mistake. The Greek original meant (1) *cause*, (2) *accusation*. The Latins took it in sense (2) instead of (1).

Adjunct [L. *ad*, "to;" *junct*, "joined"]. A word grammatically *joined to* another word.

Adverb [L. *ad*, "to;" *verb*, "word" or "Verb"]. A word generally joined to a Verb (45).

Adversative [L. *adversus*, "opposite"]. An epithet applied to Conjunctions that (like "but") express *opposition*.

Affix [L. *ad*, "to;" *fix*, "fixed"]. A syllable or letter *fixed to* the end of a word.

Agreement. The change made in the inflections of words so that they may suit or *agree* with one another in a sentence (78).

Alexandrine. A rhyming verse of twelve iambic syllables, said to be so called from its being used in an old French poem on *Alexander the Great*.

Alphabet [Gr. *alpha*, *beta*; "a," "b"]. The list of letters, so called from the names of the first two letters in Greek.

Anacolouthon [Gr. *a*, "not;" *acolouthon*, "following"]. A break in the Grammatical sequence, or *following*.

Analysis [Gr. *ana*, "back;" *lusis*, "loosing"]. *Unloosing* anything (e. g. a Sentence) *back* into its constituent parts. Hence an *analytical* period in a language. See Par. 556.

Anomaly. A Greek-formed word meaning "unevenness," "irregularity."

Antecedent [L. *ante*, "before;" *cedent*, "going"]. (a) That part of a sentence which expresses a condition (167). So called because the condition must *go before* its consequence.

See *consequent* (2). (b) Also used for the Noun that *goes before* a Relative Pronoun.

Anti-climax. The opposite of a *climax*. A sentence in which the meaning sinks in importance, instead of rising at the close.

Antithesis [Gr. *anti*, "against;" *thesis*, "placing"]. The *placing* of word *against* word, by way of contrast.¹

Apodosis [Gr. *apodosis*, "a paying back"]. A Greek name for the "Consequent." The condition was regarded by the Greeks as demanding its consequence, as a sort of *debt*, to be *paid* in return for the fulfilment of the condition.

Apostrophe [Gr. *apo*, "from;" *strophe*, "turning."]. A mark showing a vowel is omitted, so called because it is *turned away* from the next consonant.²

Appellative [L. *appella*, "call to"]. Another name for the *Vocative* or *calling* use of a noun. Paragraph 32.

Apposition [L. *ad*, "near;" *posit*, "placed"]. The *placing* of one noun or pronoun *near* another, for the purpose of explanation (137).

Archaism [Gr. *archaios*, "ancient"]. An *ancient* word or expression.

Article [L. *articulus*, "a little joint or limb"]. A name (*a*) correctly given by the Greeks to their "article," because it served as a *joint* uniting several words together; (*b*) then loosely used by the Latins (as was natural seeing they had no "article") of any short word, whether Verb, Conjunction, or

¹ See *How to Write Clearly*, Par. 41.

² In Rhetoric, the *apostrophe* is the *turning away* from one's audience to address some *absent* person. The old name for the Grammatical *apostrophe* was *apostrophus*; and this would be useful to distinguish it from the Rhetorical term.

- Pronoun; (c) foolishly introduced into English, and once used to denote "the" and "a."
- Aspirate** [L. *ad*, "to;" *spirare*, "breathe"]. The strongly-breathed letter, *h*.
- Asyndeton** [Gr. *a*, "not;" *syndeton*, "bound together"]. The omission of Conjunctions, so that sentences are *not bound together*.
- Attribute**. A quality attributed to a person or thing.
- Auxiliary** (Verbs) [L. *auxilia*, "to help"]. Verbs that are used as *helpers* or companions to other Verbs (95).
- Bathos** [Gr. *bathos*, "depth"]. A ludicrous fall to a *depth*, i. e. a descent from the elevated to the mean in writing or speech.¹
- Cardinal** (Numbers) [L. *cardin-*, "hinge"]. That on which anything *hinges* or turns: hence, "important," "principal." A name given to those more *important* forms of Numerical Adjectives from which the Ordinal forms are derived.
- Case** [L. *casus*, "falling"]. The Latin translation of the Greek term for the uses of a Noun. The Greeks regarded the subjective form as "erect" and the other forms as more or less *falling* away from it. Hence the terms "oblique," "decline," &c.
- Clause** [L. *claus-*, "shut"]. A number of words *shut* up within limits. In this book the word is used of a sentence preceded by a Conjunction, the *sentence and Conjunction together* being called a Clause (239).
- Climax** [Gr. *climaz*, "ladder"]. The arrangement of a sentence like a *ladder*, so that the meaning rises in force to the last.²
- Cognate** (Object) [L. *Co-*, "together;" *nati-*, "born"]. The name given to an object that denotes something *akin* to (*born together* with) the action denoted by the Verb (125).
- Colon** [Gr. *colon*, "limb"]. The stop marking off a *limb* or member of a sentence.
- Comma** [Gr. *comma*, a "section"]. The stop marking off a *section* of a sentence (294-308).
- Common** (Noun). A name that is *common* to a class and not *peculiar* or *proper* to an individual.
- Comparative** (Degree). The form of an Adjective denoting that a quality exists in a greater degree in some one thing than in some other with which it is *compared*.
- Complementary** [L. *comple-*, "fill up"]. That which completes or *fills up* (97, 106).
- Complete** (State). A name given to an action (whether Past, Present, or Future) that was, is, or will be *complete* (72).
- Complex** (Sentence) [L. *con-*, "together;" *plic-*, "fold"]. A sentence that is *folded together*, or involved. Hence a sentence containing one or more Subordinate sentences (250).
- Compound** (Sentence) [L. *con-*, or *com-*, "together;" *pon-*, "place"]. A sentence made up of a number of Co-ordinate sentences *placed together* (247).
- Concord**. The name given to syntactical *agreement* between words, e. g. between Verb and Subject.
- Conjugation** [*con*, "together;" *jugatio*, "joining"]. A number of Verbs *joined* together in one class.³

¹ See Par. 40, *How to Write Clearly*..

² See Par. 39, *How to Write Clearly*.

³ Hence to *conjugate* a Verb is to repeat the inflections belonging to the class or *conjugation*. But the Romans used *decline* and not *conjugate* in this sense (Madvig).

Conjunction [L. *con*, "together;" *junct*-, "joined"]. A word that *joins* two sentences together.

Consequent. The name given to that part of a sentence which expresses the *consequence* of the fulfilment of a condition. See *Antecedent*, and Paragraph 167.

Consonant [L. *con*, "together;" *sonant*-, "sounding"]. Letters (such as *p*) that can only be *sounded together with* a vowel.

Continuous (State). The name given to an action (whether Past, Present, or Future) that is, was, or will be *continuing* or incomplete (72).

Copula [L. *copula*, "bond"]. The word "is," so called because it *binds* or connects Subject and Predicate in *Logic*.

Correlatives. Words that are *related together* or mutually related, e. g. "either," "or;" "both," "and;" "when," "then."

Dative [L. *dative*-,¹ "that which has arisen from giving"]. The Latin name for the Indirect Objective case used after Verbs of *giving*, etc. (126).

Declension. The bending or *declension* of the Oblique (see *Oblique*, below) cases from the Subjective form, which was regarded as "erect." Hence applied to the statement of the cases of a Noun.

Definite (Article). A name given to the Adjective "the" from the fact that "the" *defines* its Noun. See *Article*.

Definition [L. *de*, "from;" *finit*-, "marked out," "bounded"]. That which *marks out the boundaries* of anything so

as to distinguish it from all other things. N. B. *Not* a mere "description."

Degree (of comparison) [L. *gradus*, Fr. *degré*, "step"]. The forms expressing the *steps* or *degrees* in which a quality can be expressed by an Adjective.

Dentals [L. *dent*-, "tooth"]. Consonants pronounced with the aid of the *teeth*; *d*, *n*, *t*.

Dependent (Sentence). Sometimes used for Subordinate. But generally applied to *Subordinate* sentences that are the Subjects or Objects of Verbs.

Diæresis [Gr. *diæresis*, "separation"]. The mark placed over one of two vowels to show that each is to be pronounced *separately*; e. g. in "aërial."

Diphthong [Gr. *di*, "twice;" *phthongos*, "sound"]. Two vowel sounds pronounced as one.

Direct (Object). The Noun that denotes what is regarded as the *direct object* of the action of a Verb.²

Ellipsis [Gr. *elleipsis*, "omission"]. The *omission* of words (said to be "understood," i. e. implied) in a Sentence.

Emphasis [Gr. *emphaino*, "I make clear"]. Stress of the voice laid on particular words or syllables in order to make the meaning *clear*.

Epigram [Gr. *epi*, "on;" *gramma*, "writing"]. A *writing* on a monument. Hence a short poem. Hence a short *pointed* poem or saying.³

Epithet [Gr. *epithetos*, "placed to"]. An Adjective *placed* to a Noun to describe some quality of the person or thing denoted by the Noun.

¹ Termination *-ivus* in Latin, when added to Participles, denotes *that which has arisen from*, e. g. "captivus," *that which has arisen from "capture."*

² See Par. 14.

³ The point will generally be at the *end*. Intentional "bathos" sometimes borders on "epigram." See *How to Write Clearly*, Par. 42.

Etymology [Gr. *etymon*, "true meaning;" *logia*, "science"] The science of the true meaning of words, according to their derivation.

Euphony [Gr. *eu*, "well;" *phone*, "sound"]. That which sounds well.

Flat (Consonants). *B, a, g*.

Foot. The metrical subdivision of a verse. A verse being supposed to *run*, its limbs or members might well be called *feet*.

Frequentative (Verb). A Verb that expresses a frequently repeated action, *e. g.* "pat-*er*."

Gender [L. *genus*, Fr. *genre*, "breed," or "class"]. Forms to denote classification according to sex. There are no inflexions for Genders in English (37).

Genitive (Case) [L. *genitivus*, "generating"]. The name for the Latin case denoting generation, origination, possession. Sometimes applied to the English Possessive Inflection.¹

Gerund [L. *gero*, "I carry on"]. Part of a Latin Verb denoting the *carrying on* of the action of the Verb. There was once a gerundive form in English (551).

Grammar [Gr. *gramma*, a "letter;" Fr. "*grammaire*"]. The science of letters; hence the science of using words correctly.

Gutturals [L. *guttur*, "throat"]. Throat letters, *k*, and hard *g*.

Heterogeneous (Sentence) [Gr. *hetero*, "different;" *genos*, "kind"]. A Sentence combining a number of Sentences of so different a kind

from each other that they ought not to be combined.²

Iambus [Gr. *iambos*]. In English, a foot of two syllables, the first unaccented, the second accented.

Idiom [Gr. *idioma*, "peculiar-ity"]. A mode of expression peculiar to a language.

Imperative (Mood) [L. *impera*, "command"]. The commanding Mood (70).

Impersonal (Verbs). Verbs not used in the first or second Person (328).

Incomplete (State). The forms of the Verb denoting an action in an *Incomplete State* (72).

Indefinite (Article). A name given to "an," "a," because the Adjective leaves its Noun undefined, or *indefinite*. See *Article*; also, *Definite*.

Indefinite (State). The forms of the Verb denoting an action of which the *State* is *not defined* (72).

Indicative (Mood) [L. *indica*, "point out"]. The Mood that *points out* or *indicates* an action, etc., as a past, present, or future existence (70).

Indirect (Object). The Noun or Pronoun denoting the person or thing regarded as not directly but only *indirectly* influenced by the action of the Verb. But see Paragraph 118 for a more satisfactory test.

Infinitive (Mood) [L. *in*, "not;" *finitus*, "limited"]. A Mood *not limited* by any definition of Person or Number (70).

Inflection [L. *inflecto*, "I bend"]. The *bending* of a word from the simple form, by means of varying the termination. See *Oblique*, below.

¹ The Latin "genitivus" is a mistranslation of the Greek *genike*, which meant the *generic* case, *i. e.* the case that denoted the *genus* or class. For example, "life," "What class of life?" "Man's life."

² See Par. 43, *How to Write Clearly*.

Interjection [L. *inter-ject-*, "thrown between"]. An utterance *thrown* in *between* words, to express emotion. Not a Part of Speech.

Intransitive (Verb) [L. *in*, "not;," *transitiv-*, "passing across"]. A Verb whose action is not supposed to *pass across* to any Object. But see *Transitive*, below.

Labials [L. *labium*, "lip"]
Lip-letters: *f*, *v*, *p*, *b*, *m*, *hw*. (the real sound in *which*), and *w*.

Language [L. *lingua*, Fr. *langue*, "tongue"]. The expression of meaning by the *tongue*.

Linguals [Latin, *lingua*, "the tongue"]. Letters whose sounds are produced by the *tongue*; *sh*, *s* in pleasure.

Liquids. Letters of a flowing, liquid sound, as *l*, *r*.

Metaphor [Gr. *meta*, "from one to another;" *phora*, "carrying"]. The *carrying* of a relation from one set of objects to another; e. g. of the relation of ploughing from "plough" and "land" to "ship" and "sea."¹

Metre [Gr. *metron*, "measure"]. The *measuring* of language out into verses.

Monosyllable [Gr. *mono*, "only"]. A word of *only one* syllable.

Mood [L. *mod-*, "manner"]. The form of a Verb expressing the *manner* of action (70).

Mutes [L. *mut-*, "dumb"]. Letters that are *dumb* without the aid of a vowel: *k*, *g*, *t*, *d*, *n*, *p*, *b*, *m*.

Nasal [L. *nas-*, "nose"]. Consonants sounded through the *nose*: *n*, *m*.

Nominative (Case) [L. *no-*

mina-, "to name"]. An old Latin term for the Subject, used because the Subject was regarded as a person or thing *named*.

Noun [L. *nomen*, Fr. *nom*, "name"]. The *name* of anything.

Object. The word, or group of words, denoting that which is regarded as the object or mark aimed at by the action of a Verb or the motion of the Preposition² (13). But see Definition in Paragraph 14.

Oblique (Case). A name given to all Cases but the Subjective. By the Greeks the Subjective form of a Noun was regarded as *erect*, and all the other forms as *fallings* or *oblique* deviations from the Subjective.

Ordinal (Adjective) [L. *ordin-*, "order"]. An Adjective that answers to the question, "In what order?"

Orthography [Gr. *ortho*, "correct;" *grapho*, "I write"]. The *correct writing* of words, i. e. correct spelling. N. B. Not "calligraphy," "pretty writing."

Parenthesis [Gr. *para*, "aside;" *enthesis*, "insertion"]. A word, phrase, or sentence, *inserted aside*, or by the way, in a sentence complete without it.

Participle [L. *particip-*, "participating"]. A form of a Verb *participating* of the nature of a Verb and of the nature of an Adjective.

Partitive [L. *part-*, "part"]. Denoting *partition*.

Passive (Voice) [L. *pass-*, "suffering"]. The form of a Verb in which the Subject is supposed to *suffer* an action³ (80).

¹ *English Lessons for English People*, page 78.

² This definition, though in accordance with *Etymology*, is often *Grammatically* inapplicable.

³ This definition is *unsatisfactory*. See Par. 80.

Palatals. Letters whose sounds are produced by the *palate*: *ch, j*.

Perfect (Tense) [L. *perfect-*, "complete"]. The Name for the Latin Tense that has to represent (owing to the paucity of their Tenses) Indef. Past and Complete Present.

Period [Gr. *peri*, "round;" *od-*, "path"]. (1) The full, *rounded path* of a complex sentence; (2) a mark at the end of a sentence.

Person [L. *per*, "through;" *son-*, "sound;" hence, *persona*, "a mask through which an actor sounds;" "an actor's part in a play"]. The *part played* in conversation, whether (1) speaking; (2) spoken to; (3) spoken of (79).

Personification. Endowing what is impersonal with a Personal Character.¹

Phrase [Gr. *phrasis*, a "saying"]. A group of words not expressing a statement, question, or command (239).

Pluperfect (Tense) [L. *plu-*, "more;" *perfect-*, "complete"]. A *more than complete* Tense. A Latin way of expressing the Complete Past.

Plural (Number) [L. *plu-*, "more"]. The form of a Noun that denotes *more* than one (34-36).

Poetry [Gr. *poietae*, a "maker"]. Language that is artistically *made*, as distinguished from that which is ordinarily written or spoken.

Polysyllable [Gr. *poly*, "many"]. A word of *many* syllables.

Positive. The simple form of an Adjective; so called because it expresses a quality not comparatively, but *positively* (42).

Possessive (Use) [L. *posses-*, "possessed"]. The name given to the use or case of a Noun denoting *possession* (37).

Potential (Mood) [L. *potent-*, "powerful"]. An old name for a supposed Mood, which is really either the Mood of Purpose, or else simply the Indic. of an *Auxiliary Verb*. So called because it involves the meaning of *power* or possibility.

Predicate [L. *predica-*, "proclaim," "state"]. A word or group of words making a *statement* about a Subject (263).

Prefix [L. *præ*, "before;" *fix-*, "fixed"]. A letter, syllable, or word *fixed before* another word.

Preposition [L. *præ*, "before;" *posit-*, "placed"]. A Word (not a Verb) *placed before* a Noun or Pronoun that is its object.

Preterite (Tense) [L. *præterit-*, "past"]. A pedantical expression for "the Past Tense"

Prodosis [Gr. *pro*, "before;" *dosis*, "giving"]. Literally, *giving before*. Hence, in a sentence, the Antecedent or Condition. See *Apodosis*.

Pronoun [L. *pro*, "for;" *nomen*, "noun"]. A word used *for* a Noun.

Proper (Noun) [L. *propri-*, Fr. *propre*, "peculiar"]. A name that is *peculiar* or *proper* to the individual, not common to a class. See *Common*.

Prose [L. *prosa*, for *proorsa*, for *pro-versa*,² i. e. "turned forward"]. Writing that does not *turn* like *verses* (see *Versé*, below), but runs *straight on*. Hence, the *straightforward* arrangement of prose.

Prosody [Gr. *prosodia*, a "song"]. Hence, that part of Grammar which treats of

¹ *English Lessons for English People*, page 181.

² Compare our *c'er*, *o'er*, for *ever*, *over*.

verse, whether intended to be sung or not.

Punctuation [L. *punctum*, "point"]. Dividing a sentence by means of *points* representing the pauses.

Quantity. The *quantity* of time necessary to pronounce a syllable.

Redundant [L. *re(d)*, "back;" *undant*, "flowing"]. *Flowing back* or over, i. e. superfluous. N. B. This word is often lazily used to appear to get rid of a difficulty. But few words are, strictly speaking, *redundant*; they serve some purpose, although the purpose may not be easy to detect.

Reflexive (Verb) [L. *reflect*, "bend back"]. A verb in which the action of the Subject is as it were *bent back* on the Subject, so that the Subject and Object denote the same person or thing.

Relative (Pronoun) [L. *re*, "back;" *lat*, "carried"]. A name given to *who*, *which*, etc., when they do not carry one forward (as they do when used Interrogatively), but *carry* one back to the Antecedent.¹

Retained (Object). The name given to one of the Objects of a Transitive Verb when *retained* as the Object of the same Verb in the Passive (123).

Rhyme [A. S. *rim*, "number"], identity of sound (from the vowel to the end) between two syllables at the end of two lines.² The Anglo-Saxon Poetry was not based on rhyme but on alliteration.

Rhythm [Gr. *rhythmos*, "flowing motion"], the *flowing*, regular motion of verse and of periodic prose.

Root. That form from which another word springs, as a tree springs from its *root*.

Semicolon [L. *semi*, "half;" Gr. *colom*, "limb"]. *Half* of the *colom*, i. e. of the stop that marks off a separate *limb* or member of a sentence.

"Sensuous" [L. *sensu*, "sense"]. Appealing to the senses. Milton says that Poetry should be "simple, *sensuous*, and passionate."

Sentence [L. *Sententia*, a "meaning"]. A group of words of a *meaning* so far complete as to express a statement, question, command (239).

Sharp (consonants): *k*, *p*, *t*, *s* called from their sharp sound.

Sibilant [L. *sibila*, "hiss"]. *Missing* letters: *s*, *z*, *sh*.

Simile. A sentence expressing the *similarity* of relations; e. g. between "plough" and "land," "ship" and "sea."³

Solecism [Gr. *soloikismos*, "speaking like the men of Soloi"⁴]. Inaccuracy of expression.

Spirants [L. *spira*, "breathe"]. Letters in the pronunciation of whose sounds the *breath* is not wholly stopped, as it is in the pronunciation of "mutes."

Stanza [It. *stanza*, a "stop"]. A division of a poem containing every variation of measure in the poem, and generally furnishing a *stopping-place* at its termination.

Strong (Verbs). Verbs that make their Past Tenses and Passive Participles, not by adding *-ed*, *-t*, but by vowel changes.

Style [L. *stilus*, "an instrument for writing"]. A manner of expressing thought in language.

¹ See *How to Tell the Parts of Speech*, p. 98.

² Syllables altogether identical do not rhyme.

³ See *English Lessons for English People*, page 126.

⁴ The derivation usually given, but probably inaccurate.

Subject [L. *subject-*, "placed under"]. That which is *placed under* one's thoughts, as the material or topic for speech. Hence the subject of a Verb is said to be that about which the Verb makes a statement. But see Par. 1, note.

Subjunctive (Mood) [L. *sub-junct-*, "subjoined"]. A Mood expressing a purpose, condition, etc., *subjoined* to some statement, question, or answer (163).

Subordinate (sentence) [L. *sub*, "beneath;" *ordin-*, "rank"]. A sentence that *ranks beneath* another sentence. See Par. 249.

Substantive (Noun) [L. *substantiv-*, "substance"]. A useless name given to Nouns denoting things said to have *substantial* existence.

Suffix [L. *sub*, "beneath;" *fix-*, "fixed"]. Same as *Affix*.

Superlative (degree) [L. *super*, "above;" *lat-*, "carried"]. An Adjectival form denoting the expression of a quality in a degree *carried above* other degrees (42).

Supplement [L. *sub*, "up;" *ple-*, "fill"]. That which *fills up*, or supplies what is wanting in a Verb (148).

Syllable [Gr. *syn*, "together;" *lab-*, "take"]. A group of letters *taken together* so as to form one sound.

Syncope [Gr. *syn*, "altogether" or "quite;" *cope*, "cutting"]. A considerable curtailment¹ or *cutting* of a word, by omitting letters in the middle; e. g. *ne'er* for *never*.

Syntax [Gr. *syn*, "together;" *taxis*, "arranging"]. The *arrangement* of words *together* in a sentence.

Synthesis [Gr. *syn*, "together;" *thesis*, "placing"]. *Placing together* parts so as to form a whole. The opposite of *analysis*. Hence a *synthetic* period in language. See Par. 551.

Tense [L. *tempus*, Fr. *temps*, "time"]. The forms of a Verb indicating the *time* of an action (71).

Transitive [L. *trans*, "across;" *it-*, "going"]. A Verb that has an object, so called because the action of the verb is regarded as passing or *going across* to the Object (55).

Trochee [Gr. *trochos*, "a running"]. In English a foot of two syllables consisting of an accented, followed by an unaccented, syllable. So called from its brisk, or *running*, nature.

Verb [L. *verb-*, "word"]. The chief *word* in a sentence.

Verse [L. *vert-*, "turn"]. A line of poetry at the end of which one *turns* to a new line.

Vocative [L. *roca-*, "call"]. The use or case of a Noun when the person or thing is *called* to (32).

Vowels [L. *vocalis*, "having voice"]. The letters that *have a voice* or are sounded (not as the "consonants," but) by themselves: *a, e, i, o, u*.

Weak (Verbs). Verbs that form their Past Tenses and Passive Participles by adding *d* or *t*, and not by changed Vowel.

¹ Perhaps "a *cutting* in the middle so as to pull the extremes *together*."

RULES AND DEFINITIONS.

It is assumed that the ten following Definitions are known to the pupil:—

1. A *Noun* is a name of any kind (page 7¹).
2. A *Pronoun* is a word used for a Noun (page 8¹).
3. An *Adjective* is a word that can be put before a Noun either to distinguish it, or to point out its number or amount (page 19¹).
4. A *Verb* is a word that can make a statement (page 24¹).
5. An *Adverb* is a word that answers to the question "how?" "when?" "where?" or "how far is this true?" (pages 38, 43¹).
6. A *Preposition* is a word that can be placed before a Noun or a Pronoun, so that the Preposition and Noun or Pronoun together are equivalent to an Adjective or Adverb (page 57¹).
- 7.² A *Sentence* is a collection of words expressing a statement, question, or command (page 30¹).
- 8.² Any other collection of words, having a meaning, is called a *Phrase* (page 30¹), or *Clause*. See Glossary.
9. A *Conjunction* is a word that joins two sentences together (page 64¹).
10. A *Relative Pronoun* is a Conjunctive Pronoun used so as to refer to a preceding Noun or Pronoun called the *Antecedent* (page 98¹).

1. The *Subject* of a Verb making a statement is the word or words answering to the question "who?" or "what?" before the Verb (Par. 1).
2. The *Object* of a Verb or Preposition is the word or words answering to the question "whom?" or "what?" after the Verb or Preposition (14²).
3. When the Relative is followed by a Conjunction introducing a new Sentence, leave out this sentence in parsing the Relative (24).
4. The *Antecedent* must sometimes be *supplied* from the sentence (25).
5. The *Relative* is sometimes *omitted* (26).
6. Some Pronouns are used *Interrogatively*, *Conjunctively*, and *Relatively* (28).
7. The *Uses* or *Cases* of a Noun are four, viz. *Subject*, *Object*,⁴ *Possessive*, and *Vocative* (32).

¹ The figures denote the pages of *How to Tell the Parts of Speech* on which the first ten Definitions will severally be found.

² A Sentence preceded by a Conjunction ceases to *state, command, or question*; it therefore becomes a *Phrase*, e. g. "*When I saw John.*" Such a Phrase may conveniently be called a *Clause*. See Par. 239.

³ These and the following References are to the *Paragraphs* in *How to Parse*.

⁴ If the Indirect Object is called a separate use, there will be five Uses of a Noun.

8. The Plural of a Noun is formed by adding *-s* to the Singular (34).
9. The Possessive Use or Case, in the Singular and Plural, is formed by adding *'s* to the Singular or Plural form (37).
10. An Adjective has three Degrees of Comparison, viz. *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative* (42).
11. To form the Comparative and Superlative, add *-er*, *-est*, to Positives of one Syllable. "More" and "most" are used in other cases (43).
12. A Verb that can have an Object is called *Transitive*; a Verb that cannot, is called *Intransitive*.¹
13. The *Passive Voice* of a Transitive Verb is the form assumed by the verb when its object is made the Subject (60).
14. The *Active Voice* of a Transitive Verb is the form that can be used with an Object (61).
15. A *Participle* can be distinguished by the fact that it can be, in part, replaced by a Conjunctive word (66).
16. Each Voice has four *Moods*: *Infinitive*, *Indicative*, *Imperative*, and *Subjunctive* (70).
17. The *Infinitive* Mood speaks of an action without defining the doer (70).
18. The *Indicative* Mood definitely points out an action (70).
19. The *Imperative* Mood commands an action (70).
20. The *Subjunctive* Mood expresses condition, purpose, wish, etc. (70).
21. Verbs have three *Tenses*: *Past*, *Present*, and *Future* (71).
22. Each Tense has four "States" of Action: the *Indefinite*, the *Complete*, the *Incomplete*, and the *Complete Post-Continuous* (73, 74).
23. A Verb *agrees* with its Subject in *Person* and *Number* (78).
24. "May," "can," "must," "will," "shall," "let," etc., are called *Auxiliary Verbs* (95).
25. "To" is omitted in the Infinitive after the Auxiliary Verbs, and after "see," "hear," "feel" (96).
26. An Infinitive may be used (1) as a Noun; (2) as an Adverb; (3) as an Adjective.
27. The *Indirect Object* of a Verb is the word or phrase answering to the question, "For or to whom?" "For or to what?" when used after the Verb and the Direct Object (118).
28. When an Active Verb taking two Objects is changed into the Passive Voice, one Object becomes the Subject of the Passive Verb, but the other is *retained as Object* (122).
29. Some Verbs, generally Intransitive, can take an Object of a nature *akin* or *cognate* to the Verb, called the *Cognate Object* (125).
30. The *Object* is sometimes used *Adverbially* to denote *extension*, *price*, *point of time* (127-131).
31. The *Subject*, generally with a Participle, is sometimes used *Adverbially* (135).
32. A Noun or Pronoun, not Subject or Object of a Verb, but so connected with another Noun or Pronoun that we can understand be-

¹ The usual Definitions are given in Par. 55; but they are very unsatisfactory.

tween them the words, "I mean," "that is to say," etc., is said to be in *Apposition* to the latter (137).

33. Nouns and Pronouns are used *Subjectively* when in Apposition to *Subjects*, and *Objectively* when in Apposition to *Objects* (138).

34. The (1) Intransitive Verbs "is," "looks," "seems," "appears," etc., and (2) the Transitive Verbs "make," "create," "appoint," "deem," "esteem," being used to express identity, and, as it were, to place one Noun or Pronoun in apposition with another, may be called *Verbs of Identity* or *Appositional Verbs* (147).

35. Verbs of Identity, when Intransitive and Passive, take a *Subjective Supplement*; when Transitive, take an *Objective Supplement* (150).

36. "It" and "there" are sometimes irregularly used to prepare the way for the Subject or Object (151).

37. In a Conditional Sentence, (1) the Clause expressing the condition is called the *Antecedent*; (2) the Clause expressing the consequence of the fulfilment of the condition is called the *Consequent* (167).

38. Auxiliary Verbs (when not following "if" or any other Conjunction expressing Condition) are used Indicatively, *whenever they can be altered into the Indicatives of other Verbs* (181).

39. Whenever language is irregular, there is some *cause* for the irregularity (192).

40. The three principal *causes* of irregularity are, I. *Desire of brevity*; II. *Confusion of two constructions*; III. *Desire to avoid harshness of sound or of construction* (198).

41. A *Simple Sentence* is a Sentence that has only one Subject and only one Stating, Questioning, or Commanding Verb (245).

42. When several Simple Sentences are connected by "and," "but," "so," "then," etc., so that each sentence is, as it were, independent, and of the same rank as the rest, each is called a *Co-ordinate Sentence*¹ (246).

43. A *Compound Sentence* is a Sentence made up of Co-ordinate Sentences (247).

44. When a number of sentences are connected by Conjunctions that are not Co-ordinate, the Sentence that is not introduced by a Conjunction is called the *Principal Sentence* (248).

45. Sentences connected with a Principal Sentence by Conjunctions that are not Co-ordinate are called *Sub-ordinate*¹ (249).

46. A *Complex Sentence* is the whole Sentence formed by the combination of the Principal and Subordinate Sentences (250).

47. When a word passes from one form to another, a letter is often changed or doubled in order to *preserve the original sound* (266).

48. Final *-e* is dropped before an affix beginning with a vowel, but retained before an affix beginning with a consonant (270).

49. A monosyllable ending in *-l*, when followed by an affix beginning with a consonant, or when itself used as an affix, generally drops one *-l* (275).

50. If the termination of a word is a consonant preceded by a vowel, then, on receiving an affix beginning with a vowel, the final

¹ The *mark* of a Subordinate Sentence is that when preceded by its Conjunction it *cannot* generally stand as a Sentence by itself. A Co-ordinate Sentence *can* thus stand by itself.

consonant in the word is doubled, provided that the word is a monosyllable, or accented on the last syllable (277).

51. When a word is separated from its grammatical adjunct by any intervening Phrase, the Phrase should be preceded and followed by a comma¹ (224).

¹ For words, idioms, etc., the pupil is referred to the Alphabetical Index at the end of the book.

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